The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 17, 1886.

The Week.

MR. RANDALL'S disingenuous attack upon civil-service reform, through a rider upon an appropriation bill nullifying the competitive system, resulted on Saturday in the failure which was inevitable, the proposition being ruled out of order. A more honest attack by a Maryland Representative, who moved to strike out the appropriation for the payment of the Civil-Service Commission, also failed ignominiously, the proposition receiving only eighteen votes. The only results of the spoilsmen's raid have been to expose Mr. Randall's perfidy and to strengthen Mr. Cleveland's position.

Mr. Randall's attempt to take the life out of the Civil-Service Law proves to have been an even more glaring violation of personal pledges than appeared upon the surface. Two very interesting points in his record upon this question were brought out during the debate in the House. Mr. Cox of North Carolina recalled the forgotten fact that Mr. Randall was absent from the House at the time the Civil-Service Act was passed in 1883, but was not content to let the matter go without declaring his position, as he might have done. "After sleeping on the subject, he came into the House the next day, and stated that but for a mistake he would have been present and recorded his vote for the measure." Mr. McComas of Maryland recalled another forgotten fact, which places Mr. Randall's present attitude in a still worse light. In 1884, after the Civil-Service Act had been in operation for a year, 150 special pension examiners were required, and provision was made for their payment in an appropriation bill, but without requiring that they should be selected by competitive examination. Mr. Randall thereupon moved and carried a proposition to bring these offices within the scope of the law, saying:

"This proviso here removes these appointments from the civil-service rules. Therefore, to test the sense of the Committee, I move to strike out the proviso. *Let me ask the gentleman if the best way to judge of the capacity of applicants for this service is not by following the rules of the Civil-Service Commission?*"

Fortunately, the Democratic party in the House did not lack a representative who could effectively answer Mr. Randall. Mr. Cox of North Carolina, Chairman of the Committee on Civil-Service Reform, made a most excellent speech on Wednesday week. After remarking that the friends of reform had nothing to fear from the discussion, and declaring that "the reform will go on despite the opposition of grasping politicians," he made this forcible reply to one of the stock pleas against the system:

"Talk about it being aristocratic to appoint men on account of merit instead of political influence! Why, sir, it is the very genius and essence of democracy. It brings the offices within the reach of the people, and says to the tenant of the humblest hamlet, 'Qualify yourself to serve your country, and if you have merit you shall be rewarded without respect to influence or power.' There is in the Treasury Department to-day a chief of a division who but a short while ago was an obscure village boy. He was selected by a competitive examination, entered at the lowest grade, rose by his merit, and was promoted to his present position without extraneous influence or patronage, for, indeed, neither of his Senators had ever heard of him."

Mr. Cox proceeded to speak with the utmost plainness as to the attitude respectively of the Democratic President, who is living up to his pledges, and the Democratic Congressmen, who are violating theirs, as follows:

"My friend from Illinois (Mr. Cannon) said yesterday he believed the present Chief Executive was now the most popular Democrat in this country. I accept the compliment, coming from an opponent, and supplement it with the opinion that he is not only the most popular Democrat, but the most popular man of either party in this country. And why? Because he is *recognized as an able, fearless, and honest public* servant, a man of the highest integrity and the loftiest purposes; one who, when he gives his pledge to the people, will stand by that pledge, even though he fall in the attempt to fulfil it [applause]; a man who, while coveting popularity, runs not after it, but by worthy acts leaves it to come to him. When a man stands by his integrity, when an official gives to the public his best services, he may make mistakes—all are liable to do that—but the people will make all proper allowances for the errors he may commit. . . . We have an Executive who is endeavoring to faithfully execute a law which we placed upon the statute-book, and the question arises whether we will stand by him or embarrass him in fulfilling his and our own public pledges. If Congress does not stand by him, the people will. ["Good!" "Good!"] Here we breathe a fetid political atmosphere. It is a point at which the offices are distributed. Jealousies and rivalries excite the imagination of the Representatives, and, I fear, stimulate more of a desire to secure the patronage of office than to bestow their thoughts and attention to the preparation and enactment of wholesome legislation for the benefit of the whole people."

Another Democratic Representative, Mr. Findlay of Maryland, came out strongly in favor of civil-service reform on Friday. Such speeches as those of Mr. Findlay and Mr. Cox show that the leaven is working. The discussion is in every way most fortunate. In the first place, it has elicited from prominent Republican Congressmen the confession that Mr. Cleveland is living up to his pledges. "I believe," said Mr. Bayne of Pennsylvania, "the President of the United States is a sincere and honest friend of civil-service reform. I think he is doing his level best to carry out that law." It has extorted from other Republican Congressmen, like Mr. Cannon of Illinois, the admission that Mr. Cleveland has gained popularity with the people by his fidelity. It has shown that more than one Democratic Representative is ready heartily to sustain the President. And finally, it has exposed in the clearest possible way the perfidy of such Democratic politicians as Mr. Randall.

The Republican State Convention in Maine on Wednesday week did what was expected of it—which was simply to record the decisions of the Blaine Machine. These were that a Knight of Labor should be made Chairman, as a sop to the "labor vote"; that the platform should contain a "ringing" plank on the fishery dispute, to capture the "fishermen vote," and a liberal pension plank, to capture the "soldier vote"; that a candidate for Governor should be nominated who had "no record" on the temperance question, and who would therefore be equally satisfactory to the "Republican saloon-keepers," who constitute a not unimportant political element even in Maine, and to the Prohibitionists; and that the nominee should also be a rich man, ready to "come down" liberally both in 1886 and in 1888, with the prospect of recouping through Government contracts after his patron's election to the Presidency. That is the whole story of the selection of Mr. J. R. Bodwell, a wealthy granite contractor, and an excellent type of the contractor in politics, as Republican candidate for Governor in Maine.

The most significant plank of the Maine Republican platform is the plank which is not there. The platform begins with the announcement that "the Republicans of Maine hereby proclaim with confidence the principles to which they adhere, on national and State issues," and proceeds to bid loudly for the "labor vote," the "soldier vote," and sundry other votes. But, although there are seventeen resolutions, the list is scanned in vain for a single word on that most vital of national issues—the silver question. It is thus made conspicuous that "the principles to which the Republicans of Maine adhere" do not include the restriction of coinage. How could they, indeed, when "Maine's favorite son" wants the votes in the next Republican National Convention of all the States and Territories which believe in continued coinage?

Mr. Henry Labouchere, who is not only a most devoted ally of Mr. Gladstone in the home-rule struggle, but also by general admission is the keenest politician on either side, thus writes in a letter published in the *Tribune* of Thursday morning:

"Mr. Blaine would do well to be more careful in his utterances respecting Lord Salisbury and others. *The English do not like America's Presidential candidates to lecture English statesmen*, of whatever complexion their politics may be. My advice to the Irish in America is to be exceedingly careful just now and to keep as quiet as they possibly can. Gladstone and Parnell have acted in perfect harmony since the meeting of Parliament, and with the Democracy of England and Ireland behind them they will eventually win if they continue to do so, and if they both live for a year or two."

The trouble with Mr. Blaine's utterances is the old one—too little thought and too much "bounce." His only idea in making the speech was to excite British abuse, and in his eagerness to do that he made the mistake of endorsing Chamberlain's plan rather than Gladstone's. Instead of winning the gratitude and support of the Irish vote by this performance, he has, according to Mr. Labouchere, won its disapproval by seriously injuring the home-rule cause. The London correspondent of the *Sun* furnishes corroborative testimony on this point by telegraphing: "Friends of Ireland in America should understand that performances like Mr. Blaine's attack upon Lord Salisbury only serve to strengthen the hands of the enemies of Mr. Gladstone and home rule."

It will be seen, therefore, that the following able tribute of admiration from Mr. Murat Halstead on the success of Mr. Blaine's speech

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was premature: "Mr. Blaine's unofficial utterances rattle around the world, while Stephen Grover Cleveland's Presidential observations excite no attention at home or abroad. It is not always the man who is elected who picks up the power and the glory." There is such a thing as too much "rattle." In public, as in private affairs, it is not the man who goes about shaking his fist in everybody's face who has the most successful and happy time of it. In the long run, dignity and sincerity pay the best. We advise Mr. Blaine and all other politicians to let the Irish vote alone for the next few weeks. These are to be momentous weeks for Ireland, and it will be the part of prudence to allow Irishmen to conduct their own battle. There are a plenty of "votes" nearer home to be angled for, among them those of the uneasy Prohibitionists.

The delightful creatures who lurked behind fences and hid in the bushes two weeks ago, watching the house in which a gentleman was passing his honeymoon, and the equally delightful creatures who paid them for doing it, are evidently very sore under the criticisms which their exertions have called forth. They do not like being considered that well-known thing, "a disgrace to journalism." But they must remember what a capacious category "disgrace to journalism" is, what a variety of offenders against decency it shelters, and how comfortable most of the inmates feel. Some of the happiest lives in this city are led by men who "disgrace journalism" seven times a week, not excepting Washington's Birthday and the Fourth of July, and feel none the worse for it. So the honeymoon spies must brush the mud off their clothes and cheer up. Other jobs of the same kind are sure to be forthcoming.

The Governor has done this city a valuable service in vetoing the Shook Excise Bill, which the Republican leaders of the State induced the Legislature to pass for the protection of "Republican saloon-keepers," and to give their party a hold upon a portion of the rum vote. The reasons which the Governor gives for his action are the same ones which have been advanced repeatedly by the opponents of the measure. He holds that there is no doubt about the intent of the law of 1884, giving the Mayor unrestricted power of appointment, and thinks that there is very little doubt about its constitutionality; if there be any doubt, he holds that the courts and not the Legislature should decide it. He denounces the bill as a "scheme to decapitate certain officials in order temporarily to make room for others"; says it is "mischievous in its tendencies and should never have been passed," and adheres to his former position in favor of allowing the Mayors of cities complete freedom of appointment. Incidentally, he gives his opinion in favor of the legality of the new Excise Board, and advises the members of the old Board, Haughton, Mitchell, and Morris, as "good citizens," to acquiesce and surrender their offices, somewhat brusquely reminding them that if they decline to do this, their board may be quickly put out of existence by the Attorney-General.

Col. George Bliss has been talking very freely with a *Herald* reporter about the inside history of Republican politics in this city, and his observations are interesting as a sort of official confirmation of what the opponents of the Republican organization have repeatedly charged. The Colonel, as everybody knows, was for many years an active member of the organization, and is as high authority as could be found upon the workings of the Machine. He confirms as a fact the statement already made in these columns, that John J. O'Brien received from Jay Gould, on the eve of the Presidential election of 1884, a check for $50,000 or $100,000—he cannot say which. Our information is that $50,000 was raised by the Union League Club, and to this sum Jay Gould added his check for $50,000, and the total of $100,000 was then placed in the hands of O'Brien for the purpose, we have always heretofore understood, of "protecting the poor negro." The Colonel says the "money was paid under some assurance that it was to be used upon Democrats with the concurrence of Mr. Kelly, and a high officer of the police force was a party to the agreement, and claimed to represent Mr. Kelly." He adds that he had Mr. Kelly's personal assurance that he had nothing whatever to do with the matter. "Mr. Gould and every other man who has paid any attention to the subject, has been unable to see where any portion of that money was expended for the benefit of the party," says the Colonel. They have, we are advised, always believed that O'Brien put the whole, or nearly the whole, of it in his pocket.

The date fixed by Col. Bliss for the payment of the money to O'Brien, two days before election, was November 2, 1884. Referring to the Colonel's statement, the *Herald* says editorially: "We take the liberty to add to the facts, that Mr. Blaine and Mr. Jay Gould passed four hours together on the afternoon of that day in conference at the house then occupied by Mr. Stephen B. Elkins in Fifty-eighth Street in this city." It is a curious coincidence that on the following day, Monday, November 3, 1884, the New York *Tribune* published the following significant editorial article:

TRUST THIS CITY!

We have one earnest word for our friends in the interior of this State.

From every quarter comes news that the country will do well—better than has been expected. Their only fear is that the splendid majority they promise will be swamped by an enormous Democratic vote here. We have taken great pains to learn the situation here, and believe we have some understanding of it. Our message to the interior of the State is this:

You can afford to trust this city! It may disappoint—it will certainly not displease you! Come down to the Harlem River with anything like the majority you talk of, and the Republicans of the metropolis will take care of the rest!

What was this exclamatory article but a thinly disguised notification to the party workers in the State at large that the city had been "fixed"?

The Third Avenue strike has had one result which is of great importance to all patrons of horse-cars in this city. It has transferred the discipline of drivers and conductors from an irresponsible Executive Committee of the Empire Protective Association to the responsible employers of the men. It will seem in future times incredible—indeed, it already almost seems so—and yet it is a fact that three months ago no street-car company in New York or Brooklyn possessed sufficient control over its employees to be able to enforce the most simple rules of good conduct. The Empire Protective Association actually claimed the right to sit in judgment upon the question whether a man who had been insolent or who had got drunk should be discharged, with the threat of "tying up" the road if the Superintendent persisted in dismissing him against the Executive Committee's verdict. Just before the Third Avenue strike occurred, an official of that line was riding on one of its cars when the driver, wanting a drink, coolly stopped his car before a saloon, went in and got it, and, when the official remonstrated, the driver replied that he was not responsible to him, but only to the Empire Protective Association. Everybody who has occasion to patronize this line must have remarked the great difference in the deportment of the new drivers and conductors toward the public since men have been employed who recognize that they owe their first duty to their employers. The other lines are now following the example of the Third Avenue in resuming control over their men, and such notices as they are now posting, that "your remaining in our service depends on your faithfulness and your honesty," and that "insubordination and insolence will not be tolerated," assure the return of common sense to the management of the street-car business throughout the city.

Mr. John Wanamaker's advertisements are in some respects the best things to be found in the Philadelphia papers. One in the *Press* of Thursday is amusing in the incongruity between its plain free-trade talk and the ultra-protection editorial essays of the same paper Here is a little of it:

We are often asked why we go 3,000 miles for things we can get at home.

The shortest answer is, We don't.

There's a heap of meaning in that little word, "thing."

American collars and cuffs not quite so good as these we tell of now and then as coming from over the sea, we could get for 50 per cent. more money.

American collars and cuffs are made in Troy. . . . The skill of the country is gathered there. That skill controls the country.

There's a keener skill abroad, or better organization, or better facilities. Better collars and cuffs for the money.

We bring these better collars and cuffs and put them right by the side of the best American. Which will you buy?

The question is answered. You are thinking of money. The money is yours. Is it wholesome to bolster Troy at a cost of a third of your money? Is it worth your while? Will you do it? We are not such ninnies as to seriously ask you.

That's the way you reason as buyers. That's the way we reason as merchants.

Etc., etc. The *Press* might almost have qualms of conscience about printing such free-trade arguments, even for pay.

A flood of light is cast upon the workings of prohibition in Kansas by the following letter, which was recently received by a student of Michigan University, from the proprietors of a drug-store in a Kansas town, to whom he had applied for a position as prescription clerk. We print the letter exactly as it was written, except for the suppression of

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the names, and no comment could possibly add to its force:

——— Kans., June 3, 1886.

MR. ——— —, ———.

DEAR SIR yours Recd in Reply i will Give you a Brief Discription of our Buisness Perhaps you understand the nature of a Drug Store in kansas we Do Some liquor Buisnes in a Back Room By the Drink our Pesscription trade Runs from two to three thousand Pr year Some Clerks objects to the Back Room trade I Give you the facts in the case So that you will not be Disappointed your Bord By the week will cost you from $3.50 to $5.00 a week now if you except this Position answer By telegraph at once as I kneed a clerk very Bad & must have one as Soon as Possiable. yours truly ——— & Co.

The misfortunes of Mr. Cyrus W. Field seem to have no end. He sailed for Europe last week, a happy man, having in his pocket, as he thought, a complete "vindication" to show to Canon Farrar, in the shape of the report of the Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature declaring that nobody was to blame in that matter of the bonds, that, in other words, the Governor was right in suspecting Mr. Field and refusing to sell him the bonds, and Mr. Field was right in accusing the Governor and Council of jobbery. It was, of course, an absurd report, very like the judgment in the Dilke-Crawford divorce case, that Mrs. Crawford had committed adultery with Dilke, but that Dilke had not, so far as the court knew, committed adultery with anybody. But then Canon Farrar is not learned about bonds or railroads, and the report would have done well enough for him, had it been accepted. But now comes the Legislature, and, recognizing its absurdity, refuses to accept it, and not only this, but by a vote of 109 to 82 passes a resolution giving Mr. Field "leave to withdraw." This is taking away the vindication from him in mid-ocean, and landing him on foreign soil a still suspected man.

This is not all. Some of the speakers were not nice to Mr. Field in the debate. Mr. Field's main point in his defence against the charge that he intended to foreclose the mortgage and wreck the stockholders, if he got the bonds, was that he had so much of the stock himself that such a transaction would have been against his interest. But Mr. Wharton of Boston showed that his stock was only worth $108,000 at the market price, which, added to $30,000 which he subscribed for the preferred stock, made his whole stock interest only $138,000, a mere bagatelle for him to pay for what he sought—the possession of the road. But in any view a decision that both he and the Governor were right in the affair was ridiculous. The stories so freely circulated that Mr. Field "squared" the Committee, and that Mr. Blaine wrote letters to the Republican members urging them "to let up" on a man who had contributed and would contribute so liberally to the Republican campaign fund, we dismiss without examination. They may or may not be true.

The statements made by Mr. Parnell and Mr. Justin McCarthy agree upon two points: first, that the Earl disclaimed anything like a treaty or bargain; second, that he was willing as one member of the Conservative Government to favor a large measure of home rule. How much home rule he was willing to agree to, is the only essential matter in dispute. When we recall the political conditions prevailing at the time—the close alliance between the Parnellites and the Conservatives, and the rattling Irish demonstrations of Lord Randolph Churchill—there is the strongest reason to believe that, if there is any coloring put upon the unreported conversation between Mr. Parnell and the Earl, it is not on Mr. Parnell's side. In short, the circumstances of the time would have warranted the Earl in taking the position which Mr. Parnell says he did take.

Everything seems to be ready now for the approaching contest in England. The elections will probably be held within a month, but if Mr. Gladstone is victorious, Parliament will not meet until the fall. If, on the other hand, he is defeated, it will meet at once to receive his surrender of power and prepare for the confusion which must follow. Mr. Gladstone's address to the electors of Midlothian has the simple persuasiveness which marks all his written papers, and which makes them in some degree rhetorically superior to his speeches. The condensation and directness which documents of this kind call for seem to have the effect of increasing the force and point of his utterances. It would hardly be possible to state more compactly than he has done in this address the issues on which the electors have to pass. He shows that they must decide between home rule and coercion, and not between home rule and Chamberlain's plan, or Trevelyan's plan, or any other man's plan—first, because the Irish will not accept anything but home rule as a settlement, and, secondly, because there is no agreement among the opponents of home rule on any plan in particular. All the Opposition, whether Tories or "Unionists," as the dissenting Liberals call themselves, have to offer is what Mr. Gladstone well describes as "the halting, stumbling, ever-shifting, and ever-vanishing projects, of an intermediate class, which have proceeded from the seceding Liberals." In truth, the only alternative presented to the electors is Mr. Gladstone's plan or Lord Salisbury's plan, and Lord Salisbury's plan is coercion for twenty years, after which Parliament would again consider what would be best for the Irish. It is true, he does not call it "coercion." That word has lately become so odious that both the Tories and the Unionists refrain from using it, and have substituted for it the phrase "firm government," which means, of course, just the same thing—that is, the free use of summary processes in the administration of justice, and increased restrictions on personal liberty through police regulations, and, in a general way, finding out what the Irish do not like and doing that vigorously.

Mr. Gladstone also makes good use of the fact, which has occupied so prominent a place in English history during the last eighty years, that the Union has failed; that after having been brought about by a mixture of force and fraud, it has never become anything more than what it was in the beginning—a paper or legislative union. The Tory and Unionist way of accounting for this failure is that the Irish are a peculiar people, who would not be content under any form of government. This is an old-fashioned explanation, which used to do good service early in the century in accounting for political troubles in various parts of the world, but it is especially an explanation which finds acceptance only among gentlemen and philosophers, or what our correspondent Mr. Dicey calls the "thoughtful" classes. Whatever be its value, there is not much use in offering it to democratic constituencies. One of the foremost articles in the democratic creed is that for long, persistent, and deep-seated discontent on the part of a large community which does not manage its own affairs, the Government is to blame. It must be conceded, too, that the thoughtful people have made so many mistakes in their diagnoses that they are worsted almost before they take the field. The Irish may prove unfit for self-government, but the English Radicals will not believe it on à-priori grounds. They will only accept it as the result of an actual experiment.

The particulars of the Parliamentary election in Italy abound in interesting features, although the general result, the decisive victory of the Depretis Cabinet, is far from being a surprise, except to heated Opposition partisans. The supporters and allies of the Ministry were overwhelmingly successful in Piedmont, Venetia, Liguria, the Romagna, the Marches, Tuscany, Umbria, and Latium—that is, in almost all the northern and central provinces of the kingdom; the Opposition, embracing Progressive-Liberals, Dissidents of the Centre, Radicals and Socialists, was moderately victorious in South Italy, and more decidedly so in Lombardy. In the islands of Sicily and Sardinia the parties were very nearly equally balanced. The result in South Italy is ascribed in great part to the indefatigable agitation—more striking by its aggressiveness and volubility than by consistency—of the ex-Minister Nicotera, one of the "Pentarchs"; and the electoral campaign there was not without a sectional character. Nicotera himself was elected by three constituencies—at Salerno, Lecce, and Reggio di Calabria—a distinction which fell to the lot of no other candidate. Of the other Pentarchs—Cairoli, Crispi, Zanardelli, and Baccarini, all of whom were elected—only Cairoli carried two seats, including one at the capital, in which the Opposition developed unexpected strength. Nicotera's Conservative co-worker, Rocco de Zerbi, was also successful in two contests, and so were, among others, the Radicals Cavallotti and Bovio, and the notorious and condemned Anarchist Cipriani, who was elected by large majorities at Forli and Ravenna. The equally notorious Coccapieller was also returned, but the fugitive Sbarbaro's candidacy proved a failure. Among the most noted successful supporters of Depretis, from both the Liberal and Moderate ranks, are Minghetti, Mancini, and Bonghi. The Clericals, following directions from the Vatican, abstained from voting. Depretis himself and his "transformism" were the chief objects of attack during the contest, but the Government's foreign and colonial policy was also fiercely dissected. The disastrous end of Porro's exploring expedition was, among other deliquencies, imputed to the Cabinet's bungling in African affairs. Whether the triumph of the Cabinet is now to be followed by a thorough recasting of parties, remains to be seen.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 9, to TUESDAY, June 15, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN a speech on the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill, in the House of Representatives on Wednesday, Mr. Compton (Dem., Md.) attacked the Civil-Service Law as unconstitutional. He said it was an anti-democratic and anti-republican usurpation of the people's rights. He was against the law as it stood, radically and irreconcilably. Mr. Hitt (Rep., Ill.) commented on what he termed the extraordinary provision (Randall's amendment) which had been forced upon an appropriation bill to nullify the Civil- Service Law. If it were not ruled out on a point of order, he hoped that the House, representing the country and the advanced thought of the day, would defeat it with a square vote. The law had been tried; it was no longer a speculation; and it had, upon the most thorough trial, been found to be conducive to the efficiency, honesty, and purity of the civil service. Mr. Bayne (Rep., Pa.) protested against the provision, and called attention to the fact that the change proposed to be made could be made by the President. To put this proposition in the bill was to vote a want of confidence in the President and his Cabinet. He believed that the President was doing his level best to carry out civil-service reform, and that most if not all of his Cabinet were endeavoring in good faith to execute the law. The only gentlemen who were complaining of the civil-service rules were the members of the "kitchen Cabinet"—who they were, he did not know.

Mr. Bayne (Rep., Pa.) brought on a contest over the civil-service rider to the Appropriation Bill on Friday, by moving to add to it the item appropriating the President's salary. He spoke briefly against the spirit of his amendment, but insisted that if the proviso was going into the bill at all, it ought to be applied directly to the President's salary. After Mr. Townshend (Dem., Ind.) had made the point of order against the amendment that it was new legislation, Mr. Findlay (Dem.) made the amendment the text of a strong speech in favor of civil-service reform. He denounced this covert attack on it, did not spare his Democratic associates, and, in illustration of the use that would be made of a full list of eligibles, said the recent Baltimore Postmaster (Veazey) had in some manner obtained a full list, and the result was that he discharged every man in the office and filled his place with a Democrat. The amendment was ruled out on the point of order. The discussion of the rider was continued vigorously on Saturday in Committee of the Whole, Mr. Reed (Rep. Me.) mercilessly ridiculing the division in the Democratic party on the subject of reform. Finally Mr. Blount (Dem., Ga.), Chairman of the Committee of the Whole, ruled out the "rider." He held that under the rules it is not competent for the Committee on Appropriations to consider the question of civil-service reform; that jurisdiction of that subject belongs to the Civil-Service Committee, and that the proposition changes existing law.

The events of the debate seem to make it clear that, while there is very determined opposition to the reformed civil-service system in the rank and file of both parties, and while there are a few leaders in both parties who have the courage to assert their convictions, a majority vote can be relied upon, either through a sincere desire for the reform, or from fear of openly defying public opinion, to prevent the passage of any act which, upon its face, is intended to thwart or to destroy the new civil-service system.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has decided that the word "office," in the first clause of rule 19 of the Civil-Service Commission, applies to the head of a bureau as well as to the head of a department; that the head of a bureau is the "head of an office" also; that when the head of a department believes that the public service will be promoted thereby, he can appoint a confidential clerk for the head of a bureau in his department without requiring him to undergo the civil-service examination, and the appointee can receive the pay of any clerk in the classified service, provided there is a vacancy in any grade for which an appropriation has been made.

The Senate on Thursday, by a vote of 8 yeas to 32 nays, refused to take up the resolution providing for open executive sessions. In the House the Chairman of the Committee of the Whole ruled out Mr. Holman's items of the Appropriation Bill, cutting down salaries fixed by law, as being new legislation.

Senator Beck had remarkable success on Thursday with his bill which forbids Congressmen from acting as attorneys for land-grant corporations. The bill was passed without a reference to a committee—37 to 11.

As agreed upon in the House Committee, the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill appropriates $21,053,822. The estimates aggregated $33,554,600. The appropriation for the present year was $26,205,747.

Mr. Randall has informed the President that he thinks Congress can adjourn early in July. The President expressed a desire that it should do so. It can be stated upon authority that after the Legislative and Naval Appropriation Bills have been passed, Mr. Morrison will call up his Tariff Bill.

The crop report of the Department of Agriculture makes the area of spring wheat nearly the same as last year, about twelve million acres.

Returns from every county in Oregon but two elect Pennoyer (Dem.) for Governor by 1,800 majority. The Republicans have elected beyond doubt the Congressman, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and State Printer. The Democrats have elected beyond doubt the Governor and Treasurer. In Portland, Senator Mitchell's law partner, M. Dewint, was put up for County Judge, and, in the face of 1,500 Republican majority, was defeated by 100. The Prohibition vote was about 2,000.

The Republicans of Maine on Wednesday nominated J. R. Bodwell for Governor. He worked on a farm in early life, then learned the shoemaker's trade, and later became very largely interested in granite quarries.

The Ohio Democratic State Convention will meet at Toledo on August 18.

When the Field report was reached in the Massachusetts House on Tuesday forenoon, one of the Republican leaders moved to substitute this: "Resolved, That Cyrus W. Field and the others, petitioners in the matter of the sale of certain bonds of the New York and New England Railroad, have leave to withdraw." By a vote of 109 to 82 the House accepted this resolution. The Democrats voted solidly for the Committee's report, and were joined by some Republicans.

Governor Hill has vetoed the bill putting the power of appointing Excise Commissioners in the hands of the President of the Board of Aldermen of this city. He has also vetoed the bill granting to this city the right to elect Aldermen on a general ticket. The bill also provided for spring elections and cumulative voting.

The Chicago *Times* openly charges that the ordinance allowing the North Chicago City Railway to change its lines to the cable system was passed through the City Council by means of bribes aggregating $127,000.

The Rev. Dr. Henry R. Wilson of the Presbyterian Church died on June 8 at Elizabeth, N. J. He was born in Bellefonte, Penn., June 10, 1808, and was graduated from Jefferson College in 1828. In 1876 he was made Corresponding Secretary of the Church Extension Board in this city, and held this position till his death.

Mrs. Erminie A. Smith died on Wednesday in Jersey City at the age of forty-eight. In 1876 she organized the Jersey City Æsthetic Society, composed of ladies, and was made its President. Mrs. Smith in 1880 was engaged by the Smithsonian Institution to investigate the folk-lore of the Iroquois Indians, and she joined their tribe, receiving an Indian name. At the time of her death she was engaged in preparing a dictionary of the Iroquois language.

The writer, Robert Barry Coffin, whose nom de plume was "Barry Gray," died at Fordham, N. Y., on Thursday, aged sixty years. He was born at Hudson, in this State. Besides a good many poems, he wrote: 'My Married Life at Hillside,' 'Matrimonial Infelicities,' 'Out of Town,' 'Cakes and Ale at Woodbine,' and 'Castles in the Air.' He was a valued contributor to the *Home Journal* when it was edited by N. P. Willis.

The Rev. Dr. Samuel K. Lothrop, for nearly forty years pastor of the historic Brattle Square Church, Boston, and during his active career one of the most prominent of Boston's Unitarian clergymen, died on Saturday after a brief illness of pneumonia. Born in 1804 in Utica, he had reached the age of eighty-two. He was graduated from Harvard when twenty-one years old.

David Van Nostrand, the well-known publisher of military and scientific works, died in this city on Monday, aged seventy-five.

FOREIGN.

Queen Victoria telegraphed to Mr. Gladstone on Wednesday afternoon announcing her consent to a dissolution. The Queen had previously asked Lord Hartington whether he was willing to form a Ministry. Lord Hartington, in reply, advised that Parliament be dissolved. The Liberal clubs have split, like the party. The Reform and Devonshire Clubs support the dissidents. The members of the National Liberal Club are Gladstonians, and Mr. Schnadhorst has his headquarters at that club. Mr. Schnadhorst declares that not a single Liberal association has swerved from its allegiance to Mr. Gladstone. In the House of Commons on Thursday the Queen's consent to a dissolution was formally announced.

In the House of Lords on Thursday afternoon the Earl of Carnarvon made a statement respecting Mr. Parnell's charge last Monday, that the Conservative party purchased Irish support in the last elections by a promise made through a Cabinet Minister that they would in return introduce a home-rule bill which, in addition to other features, would confer on Ireland the right to control her own tariff policy. Lord Carnarvon said that when he was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland under the Marquis of Salisbury's Government he received from Mr. Parnell a request to be allowed an interview. "As Mr. Parnell was the elected head of the Irish party," continued the Earl, "I acted on my personal responsibility, and conversed with him. The conversation was private; I never communicated it to any member of the Cabinet. Mr. Parnell and I left the room as free as we had entered it. I desire to repudiate the statement that has been printed and circulated, that I acted on that occasion in the capacity of a member of the Government." Speaking of the present Government's Irish bills, Lord Carnarvon said he objected to them in many points, although he should be perfectly willing to see introduced some system by which the Irish people, in a modified way and without being disconnected from the Imperial Parliament, could conduct their own affairs.

Mr. Parnell has written a letter in which he says: "I positively deny that I sought the interview with Earl Carnarvon. I also differ with the Earl as to two conditions upon which he alleges was based the interview, namely, that he was acting entirely on his own responsibility, and that he declined to hear or say one word to the detriment of the Union. Earl

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Carnarvon did not lay down any conditions previously. I admit that there was foundation for the third condition mentioned—that is, that he hoped it was understood that he was not engaged in making any treaty or bargain. Replying to an inquiry in regard to the proposal to establish a central legislature, founded upon county boards, I said that I did not think Ireland would accept that as a settlement; that the central body ought to be a Parliament in name and in fact, having power to deal with the local government of counties. Earl Carnarvon stated that this was his own view, adding greatly to the weight of Irish opinions. He also suggested basing the Parliament at Dublin upon the colonial model. I remarked that the protection of certain Irish industries from English and foreign competition would be absolutely necessary. The Earl replied: 'I entirely agree with you, but what a row there will be in England.' I then left, believing that we were in complete accord upon the main outlines of a plan for the settlement of the question of the Government of Ireland. I have reason to believe that the Earl impressed his views upon the Cabinet, and that many of his colleagues shared his views; also that the Earl resigned the Lord-Lieutenancy of Ireland because we did not give the Conservatives a majority at the polls." Mr. Justin McCarthy, who brought about the interview, has furnished for publication a letter which in the main supports Mr. Parnell's declaration.

The Orangemen carried on a serious rioting in Belfast on Wednesday, wrecking 100 houses. The police arrested twenty-five of them. Rioting was renewed on Wednesday evening, and the Riot Act was again read. The mob of Orangemen increased in size and began throwing stones at the police. The latter fired, killing four persons. The mob returned the fire, and a brisk fusillade was kept up for twenty minutes. The mob drove a force of 150 policemen into the barracks, and then attacked the buildings, firing revolvers and throwing stones at the doors and windows. The police fired, killing eight persons and wounding several scores. Several Protestant clergymen tried to disperse the mob, but their efforts were unavailing.

The city was comparatively quiet on Thursday forenoon. Seven hundred extra policemen were in town, the total force being 1,300. The rioting was renewed on Thursday night. An infuriated mob held possession of the streets and wrecked and pillaged the taverns. The police were compelled to fire buckshot into the mob. Many of the police were injured by stones. Eventually the troops cleared the streets. In a recent speech Mr. Herbert Gladstone attributed the Belfast riots to Lord Randolph Churchill's violent speeches.

A serious riot occurred in Sligo on Saturday night. The rioting was begun by Catholics, who were angry because somebody had destroyed the rails surrounding the Bishop's palace. They gathered in thousands and attacked houses of Protestants and molested and hooted many persons. The Orangemen made no attempt to retaliate. The Riot Act was read and the soldiers were ordered to clear the streets with their bayonets. A general stampede ensued, during which sixteen rioters were arrested.

Mr. Gladstone has issued an address to the electors of Midlothian in which he says: "There are two clear, positive, and intelligible plans before the world. There is the plan of the Government and there is the plan of Lord Salisbury. Our plan is that Ireland should, under well-considered conditions, transact her own affairs. His plan is to ask Parliament to renew repressive laws and enforce them resolutely for twenty years, by the end of which time he assures us Ireland will be fit to accept any government in the way of a local government, on the repeal of the coercion laws, you may wish to give her. I leave this Tory project to speak for itself in its unadorned simplicity, and I turn to the proposed policy of the Government. Our opponents, gentlemen, whether Tories or seceders, have assumed the name of Unionists. I deny them the title to it. In intention, indeed, we are all unionists alike, but the union they refuse to modify is in its present shape a paper union, obtained by force and fraud, and never sanctioned or accepted by the Irish nation. They are not unionists, but paper unionists. True union is to be tested by the sentiments of the human beings united. Tried by this criterion, we have less union between Great Britain and Ireland now than we had under the settlement of 1782. . . . Among the benefits, gentlemen, I anticipate from your acceptance of our policy are these: The consolidation of the united empire and a great addition to its strength; the stoppage of the heavy, constant, and demoralizing waste of the public treasure; the abatement and gradual extinction of ignoble feuds in Ireland, and that development of her resources which experience shows to be a natural consequence of free and orderly government; the redemption of the honor of Great Britain from the stigma fastened upon her almost from time immemorial in respect to Ireland, by the judgment of the whole civilized world; and, lastly, the restoration of Parliament to its dignity and efficiency, and the regular progress of the business of the country. Well, gentlemen, the first question I now put to you is, How shall Ireland be governed? There is another question behind it and involved in it. How are England and Scotland to be governed? You know how, for the last six years especially, the affairs of England and Scotland have been impeded and your Imperial Parliament discredited and disabled. All this happened while the Nationalists were but a small minority of the Irish members, without support from so much as a handful of members not Irish. Now they approach ninety, and are entitled to say: 'We are speaking the views of the Irish nation.' It is impossible to deal with this subject by half measures. They are strong in their numbers, strong in British support, which brought 313 members to vote for their country; strongest of all in the sense of being right. But, gentlemen, we have done our part; the rest remains for you. Electors of the country, may you be enabled to see through and cast away all delusions, refuse evil, and choose good."

Mr. Chamberlain issued an electoral manifesto on Friday evening. It declares that the Government's Irish proposals have been condemned in advance by every Liberal statesman of the country. Mr. Chamberlain dwells upon the fact that the Government has made no attempt to deal with matters which Mr. Gladstone's election manifesto declared were ripe for legislation. "The Government," Mr. Chamberlain continues, "came into office upon a resolution that immediate legislation should be enacted for the benefit of agricultural laborers, but it has not tried to fulfil its pledge; and Parliament is to be dismissed because a majority of the English and Scotch members refuse to accept proposals which are not supported by any section of the House of Commons, outside of the Government and those Irish members whom Mr. Gladstone recently described as marching through rapine to the disintegration of the empire." Sir Charles Dilke has also issued a manifesto supporting Irish home rule, but disagreeing with some details of Mr. Gladstone's scheme.

Queen Victoria has offered the Comte de Paris, during his exile from France under the terms of the Expulsion Bill, the use of Claremont Castle, where Louis Philippe found a home and where he died. The Count has declined the Queen's offer, on the ground that he does not intend to reside in England permanently.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Friday resolved to consider the Committee's clauses enacting the immediate expulsion of all the princes. The Chamber subsequently rejected the first clause of the Committee's bill, enacting a general expulsion. The vote was 314 to 220. An amendment was adopted, by a vote of 315 to 232, making the expulsion of the chief pretenders compulsory, and all others optional with the Government. Clauses 2 and 3 and after that the whole bill were passed. The Government is empowered to expel by decree the princes not affected by clause 1, provide penalties of two to five years' imprisonment if they return to France, and disfranchise the princes remaining in French territory.

Dieudonné Alexandre Paul Boiteau, the French author whose *nom de guerre* is "Boiteau d'Ambly," is dead at the age of fifty-seven. Among his works are 'The Adventures of Baron Trenck,' 'Errors of the Critics of Béranger,' and 'The State of France Before 1789.' He was editor of the posthumous works of Béranger, and a contributor to many French periodicals.

The physicians appointed to examine the mental condition of King Ludwig of Bavaria reported that his malady incapacitated him from governing properly. In consequence of this Prince Luitpold, uncle to the King, assumed the Regency, and summoned the Diet.

Ludwig refused for a time to admit the Ministers who came to inform him of his downfall, but finally consented to go to Berg Castle, on Lake Starnberg, a charming white-turreted castle close to the water's edge. The scenes along the route on Sunday were very affecting. The peasants knelt in the roadways weeping, and the ex-King responded mournfully. On Sunday evening the King started out for a walk in the park at Berg Castle accompanied by Dr. Gudden. Their prolonged absence caused anxiety at the castle. The park and the shores of Lake Starnberg were searched. The bodies of the King and Dr. Gudden were found in the water. It is supposed that the physician endeavored to save the King when the latter jumped into the water. Marks on the physician's body show that there was a struggle between them. King Ludwig II. was born August 25, 1845, and succeeded to the Bavarian throne in 1864. He has been eccentric for many years, lavishing his money on palaces and other luxuries. He was the friend and patron of Wagner, and enabled the composer to present his works with magnificence at Bayreuth.

At ten o'clock on Monday morning the generals of the Bavarian Army met and took the oath of allegiance to King Ludwig's brother Otto, who at once assumes the title of King under the name of Otto I. He is three years younger than Ludwig. Otto, however, will be simply nominal King, as he is mentally incapable of governing, and Prince Luitpold, his uncle, will remain Regent. The generals of the army have taken the oath of allegiance to Prince Luitpold as Regent.

The death at Freiburg is announced of Prof. Friedrich Michelis, a distinguished clerical leader of the Old Catholic movement in Germany. He was seventy-one years of age.

Prince Alexander in person opened the Bulgarian-Rumelian Assembly. He thanked the nation for rising as one man in defence of the fatherland. They had sacrificed everything to save their honor, their liberty, and the integrity of their territory. He concluded by asking the Assembly to vote the necessary money to defray the remaining unpaid expenses of the war.

It is asserted at St. Petersburg that the Shah of Persia has granted Mr. F. S. Winston, ex-United States Minister to Persia, concessions for the construction of railways between Teheran, the capital of Persia, and Bushire and Meshed, near the Afghan frontier, with such branches as may be found necessary for the development of business on the main lines.

Juarez Selman has been elected President of the Argentine Republic.

The new city of Vancouver, B. C., terminus of the Canada Pacific Railway, was burned on Sunday afternoon. The fire originated in the clearings. Hardly a house in the place remains, and several thousand people are homeless. Loss, $1,000,000.

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THE WORK OF THE CONGRESSIONAL COMMISSION ON THE SURVEYS.

To appreciate correctly the important report submitted to the Senate by Senator Allison from the Commission on the Government Surveys, we must glance at the history of the investigation. In two of his annual reports the expediency of leaving the Coast Survey under the Treasury Department was vigorously contested by Secretary Chandler, who brought an imposing array of arguments to show that it properly belonged to the Navy Department, and ought to be transferred thither without delay. By an unfortunate coincidence this attack came at the very time when the Superintendent of the Survey began to show such marks of inefficiency that a change of management seemed imperative. As the Committee on Appropriations had already lost confidence in him, they were ready to welcome such a change as that suggested by the Secretary of the Navy.

Moved by these considerations, the sub-committee of the Appropriation Committee who had charge of the subject drafted a measure practically abolishing the present Coast Survey office; turning its land work over to the Geological Survey, and its coast and hydrographic work to the Secretary of the Navy. The full Committee deemed so sweeping a measure hasty and premature. The matter was finally compromised by referring the organization and management of the Coast Survey, the Geological Survey, the Hydrographic Office of the Navy Department, and the Signal Service to a Congressional Commission, to be composed of three Senators and three Representatives. The Geological Survey and Hydrographic Office were included, not because the Committee deemed any investigation of their conduct necessary, but because, according to the plan which it was supposed the Commission might favor, they would become the receivers of the Coast Survey, which was intended to become defunct. The addition of the Signal Service was an entirely separate matter, arising from the prevailing dissatisfaction with its military management.

The Commission have listened to arguments and evidence on the subject of their work for two years. The opinion of leading experts was sought. Not only the chiefs and employees of the bureaus, but the National Academy of Sciences, as an independent, impartial adviser, was asked for its opinions. So far as the surveys were concerned, the main question was that of the division, and hence of the practical abolition, of the Coast Survey. Although naval officers of ability and distinction presented cogent arguments in favor of transferring the hydrographic work to the Navy Department, yet they failed to show with force and clearness such a prospect for improved management as was necessary to make a strong impression on their hearers. Their position was weakened, as well as strengthened, by the fact that the work under consideration was already done by them; the only change they proposed being that they should do it under the direction of the Navy Department instead of that of the Treasury Department. On the question whether the former department would superintend it more effectively and economically, their position was defensive rather than aggressive. This was a fatal weakness in such a case. On the side of the Geological Survey no attempt was made to favor the proposed measure; the general position assumed by Professor Powell being that the two organizations were doing different kinds of work, and had better be kept separate. That the Coast Survey itself, with its wide reputation, the high prestige given by the great names of its former superintendents, its efficient organization, and its excellent method of work, should make a strong argument against its own death, is a matter of course. It is therefore not surprising to find that the majority of the Commission deem the proposed policy unadvisable.

The really surprising feature of the report is that the Commission find no serious wrong in the conduct of either survey that can be remedied by legislation. All the objections against the administrative system of the two works are considered in detail, and the conclusion in each case is that they are either unfounded, or such as the executive authority alone can obviate. The Commission do not find that the work would be done any better under the Navy Department than under the Treasury Department, and lay stress upon the fact that only a small portion of it comes within the legitimate duties of a naval officer. They do not find that the Coast Survey and the Geological Survey are duplicating each other's work, and do not see that anything would be gained by placing them under one department. They are not in favor of the formation of a department of science, which was recommended provisionally by the National Academy of Sciences as a measure well calculated to unify the work of the surveys as well as the other scientific work of the Government. They even disapprove of the formation of the commission of experts which was suggested by the Academy as an appropriate authority to direct the general policy of the surveys, and thus to operate as a check upon the individual wills of the directors. They decline to enter upon the disputed question of a change in the method of work, excusing themselves on the ground that it is scientific in character, and has the sanction of more than two generations of experience and criticism. It is very significant that the more fully they investigated the subject, the less legislation they found to recommend. For example, only a month ago it was announced on authority that the members of the Commission were unanimously of the opinion that the power exercised by the director of the Geological Survey should be restricted by proper legislation, though it was admitted they were not agreed upon the precise form of such legislation. But during the intermediate month four of the members have been led to abandon that view. Nothing more restrictive than a requirement to make specific estimates is now asked for.

If this extreme optimism is justifiable at all, it is so on negative rather than on positive ground. Although the Coast and Geological Surveys are nominally under the direction of heads of departments, yet their whole policy is modelled by the individual will of their immediate heads. The latter are not only under no obligation to consult with any scientific authority, but nobody but the Committee on Appropriations need know what they are doing or what they intend to do. If we ask why the Coast Survey adopted a minute system of topography upon its maps which naval officers declare to be not only very expensive, but worse than useless to the navigator, or if we inquire why the whole direction of the survey was changed by transferring a considerable portion of its work to the interior of the country, we shall historically find no other answer than that the Superintendent deemed, for the time being, such a course advisable, and that Congress sanctioned it by making it the necessary appropriations. So also with the Geological Survey, the annual expenditure of which exceeds half a million of dollars. If we ask who has framed the policy under which all this money is expended, we shall find no other authority actively engaged in the matter than the director himself.

Now, we hold this system to be a crying evil. We fully admit that executive efficiency requires that the directors of such work as we are now considering should be left untrammelled in the execution of their plan. But executive efficiency does not require that they should themselves devise the plan of work. Twenty years ago the question whether the Coast Survey should expend tens of millions of dollars in interior triangulation, ought to have been publicly deliberated upon for months or years by the highest attainable authorities before being decided. To-day the same sort of an authority should decide how the large appropriations for the Geological Survey should be expended. What is most disappointing in the report of the Commission is that the necessity for some regulations governing this subject has been entirely overlooked.

Messrs. Morgan and Herbert submit a minority report, in which they reach conclusions radically different from those of the majority. They find serious faults in the management of both surveys, propose the transfer of the Coast Survey to the Navy Department, the abolition of its interior work, and such restrictions upon the work of the Geological Survey as in the opinion of the director would cripple its usefulness. The objection to this proposed remedy is that it would aggravate rather than cure the evil. What is wanted is a change of ideas rather than of administration, and this will not be gained by removing the work from one department to another.

THE PRESIDENT'S VETO.

THE political theorists of this country have been quite generally carried away by the magic of the late Mr. Bagehot's commentaries upon the English and American constitutions. He was indeed such a master of style and method, and withal so keen an observer, that it is not easy to resist any conclusion about which he has thrown the charm of his manner. But it must be remembered that Mr. Bagehot lived in an aristocratic community, and was intimate with the members of an aristocratic government, and that, however keen his observation of the American Constitution may have been, it could not take the place of personal familiarity. If "Presidential" government had

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to do the work of the English Parliament, the weakness which Mr. Bagehot criticised might be a very serious evil. But in the case of the United States there is very little resemblance between the functions of the general Government and those of the English Parliament; and, what is of more consequence, the constitution of government under a democracy requires very different elements from those that prevail in aristocratic constitutions.

For the truth of the matter is, although a natural self-respect prevents our publishing it among foreigners, that nearly the most indispensable requisite in our government is some provision for checkmating demagogues. When a people has reached the self-governing stage, its disorders are apt to become internal. The natural rights of citizens having been secured by the machinery of government, this machinery becomes a convenient means for the accomplishment of other purposes. The government, being popular in name, is considered to be properly employed in the gratification of what are called popular demands. Hence the absolute necessity of all manner of checks and restraints, especially upon legislative action. In many of the States conservative feeling has compelled the adoption of biennial sessions, and constitutional restrictions have been everywhere multiplied. The gathering of the Legislature when it does occur is viewed by a great many persons with apprehension, and its adjournment causes general relief. Indeed, if Congress met only in response to a genuine demand, it is somewhat doubtful if it would meet at all.

Thus it may be that in an aristocratic government such as has hitherto prevailed in England, the veto power as well as other checks are unnecessary or unavailable, while in a democracy they have great value. The veto of the President in the first place calls public attention to a bill which in most cases would be enacted practically in complete secrecy. It is peculiarly damaging to schemes for trading votes, "log-rolling," and other transactions that require private agreements for their success. The pension bills, for example, that President Cleveland is now vetoing, must be dead beyond the possibility of resurrection. They passed because no one called attention to their character, and perhaps, as Congress is constituted, it would have been impossible for members to call attention to their character. But the conspicuous position of the President draws public attention to all his utterances, and where he can adduce any plausible arguments against a measure or a class of measures, he has an immense advantage in the discussion. He may be comparatively powerless when a bill represents the sincere convictions of a majority of the members of Congress, especially when they feel sure of popular approval; both President Johnson and President Hayes failed in their vetoes of such bills. But there is a perennial crop of bad legislation that represents no sincere conviction, and rests only upon private support, and in the repression of such legislation the veto power is most useful.

It is true that in the hands of a weak or corrupt officer this power may be of little service to the public. Such a functionary is not likely to oppose the will of Congress unless under strong stimulus. But even a bad man may be placed in a situation so conspicuous that the inducements to proper action are irresistible. It is impossible for the country to hold individual representatives to a strict responsibility. The very mischief that is complained of by the country may be grateful to a particular district. The President, however, is the representative of the whole country, and his responsibility is to the whole people. However willing he may be to allow jobbery to take its course, he is exposed to a scathing fire of criticism if he is believed to be wilfully closing his eyes to corruption. Even a demagogue may be forced to calculate that he will in some cases lose more by working for his friends than by preventing them from carrying out their schemes.

On the other hand, when the country is so fortunate as to secure a man not only of personal incorruptibility, but also of political conscience, his use of the veto power may give tone to the whole Government. Many Congressmen seem to think that they must vote for any measure that will "please the people"; that is, any measure, good or bad, for which an outcry can be raised. They do not hesitate to confess that they believe measures to be injurious which they nevertheless support because they do not dare to oppose them. This pusillanimity is a very grave evil in a democratic government. It is, in fact, *the* evil of government of that type. The conception of the representative is lost and that of the mere delegate substituted—the servant who dares take no step without special orders from his master. It may be that Congressmen find this abject policy to be, on the whole, for their personal advantage, although it is obvious that they frequently lick the dust to no effect. But the spectacle of a courageous President winning the support and affection of the country by his simple fidelity to the trust that he has assumed, cannot be anything but salutary for legislators.

There is truly something wonderful in the scepticism with which our politicians regard the policy of honesty. They are a keen, sharp class of men, but their vision is strangely limited. The heart of the people longs and faints for upright rulers; there is a fund of loyalty of immeasurable extent ready to be poured out for any one that will prove himself worthy of it. Yet a most deplorable dearth of respectable Presidential candidates exists, and it may very easily happen that the voters at the next election will have to make their choice of evils. Doubtless the politicians will do their best to prevent the renomination of President Cleveland, but every veto strengthens him, because it shows that he is carefully discharging the duties of his trust. There is little danger that he will obstruct any salutary legislation, and there is a growing conviction that he will obstruct whatever jobbery he can discover. The veto power thus administered is really a source of strength to the Government, and not of weakness. By improving the quality of legislation the attachment to the Constitution of all the conservative forces of society is increased, and there is little reason to dread evil results from a personal popularity that rests not on the arts of the demagogue, but upon the commonplace virtues of courage and honesty.

MUGWUMPISM INCREASING.

THE general definition of a Mugwump is, we believe, a man who is unable, for one reason or another, to vote his regular party ticket. The regular party men speak of him as a "holier-than-thou man," a "Pharisee," and a "kicker." All these definitions come back to the same point. In other words, the Mugwump is an independent voter. It was the hope of all the regular party men a few months ago that the race of Mugwumps was dying out, and that they would make little trouble in future elections. Recent developments have, however, dispelled this hope, for they have shown that there have probably never been in the country at large so many Mugwumps as there are to-day. They are not confined to a few localities, but are scattered all the way from Maine to Oregon. Some of them are called Prohibitionists, some of them anti-Blaine men, some of them anti-Brayton men, and all of them are animated by the common purpose of supporting for office better men than the regular party candidates.

The first election of the year occurred in Oregon the other day, and the result was a complete victory for the Mugwumps. They were opposed to the Republican candidates for Governor and some other State offices because they were not worthy men. They refused to vote for them, while voting for the Republican candidate for Congress, and they succeeded in defeating the former while electing the latter. All the men elected were the most deserving in the field. The State Government was put in the control of the Democrats for the first time in several years, the Republican plurality of over 2,200 in 1884 being replaced by a Democratic majority of 2,000 this year. "The Oregon Republicans lost," says that devoted Blaine organ, the Philadelphia *Press*, "because the people could not approve of their cause." That is, there were too many Mugwumps. The Portland *Oregonian*, the State organ of the party, put the same thing in a more forcible way when it said that it could not, "consistently with self-respect and with public duty, aid those who, in the name of the Republican party, are 'working politics' solely for selfish ends, through ring and Machine methods."

Coming east to Rhode Island, we find a portentous Mugwump movement there, organized and led by the Republican organ of the State and the only newspaper of commanding influence within its borders, the Providence *Journal*. The movement has within its ranks all the best intelligence and character of the State. There is not the slightest doubt upon this point. The President and Faculty of Brown University; all the leading clergymen of all denominations; all the ablest members of the bar; all the most reputable merchants, and all the most influential and honored manufacturers, are enrolled in it. And what is their movement directed against? Nothing less than the official Republican organization of the State, which has recently forced through the Republican Legislature a most infamous measure, whose chief effect is the election to office of a notorious political corruptionist and confessed defaulter (as Postmaster of Providence) in a sum

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exceeding $30,000. Petitions signed by over 3,000 names were sent to the Legislature requesting it to repeal this measure, and the Republican majority contemptuously refused to receive them with ordinary courtesy, and in the face of them declined to reconsider its action. The charge made against the movement is that the men in it are "Mugwumps" and "soreheads," or men who are too good for every-day politics. Yet, as we have intimated, they are the very flower of the State. They are the kind of men who made the Republican party a power in its best days. Many of them were Blaine men under protest in 1884, because they feared to trust the Democratic party. The very act which they are in revolt against now would in all probability never have been committed had they not thus surrendered to their fears two years ago.

Does anybody doubt that there are more Mugwumps in New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts than there were two years ago? In the latter State what are the indications? Here is the Boston *Journal*, which advertised itself in 1884 as the only Republican morning newspaper in Boston whose conscience was equal to the strain of supporting the national Republican ticket, forced to protest against the conduct of the Massachusetts Republican Legislature for passing a bill for undermining the Civil-Service Reform Law. When the Boston *Journal* becomes "tainted" with Mugwumpism, it is time for the Republican party to get frightened. In New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey the original Mugwumps are not only solid in the faith, but they are reinforced by thousands of Prohibitionists who of themselves are numerous enough to hold the balance of power. The Prohibitionists are against the Republican party for a Mugwumpian reason—namely, that its candidates and conduct do not meet their approbation.

The leading Republican organ of Wisconsin, the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, protested the other day against the renomination of Mr. Blaine, on the express ground that the Independent vote was as hostile to him and men of his kind as ever. It said: "There is unquestionably a large class of voters who will support almost any other prominent Republican, but who will not vote for Mr. Blaine. Two years ago he lost this class of voters, and we have not heard of one among them who would be likely to support him in case of his renomination." The Olean *Times*, a Republican newspaper of this State, which admirably represents the conservative, common-sense views of rural Republican voters, takes a similar position. It says it supported Mr. Blaine in 1884, and will support him again if the "sense and voice of the party shall again concur in his nomination," but adds: "We think it would be a serious and are afraid it would prove a fatal mistake." Among its reasons for this belief the *Times* gives the following:

"Again, it will be said, it has been said, that Mr. Blaine was defeated by the Independent Republican vote, and he would not encounter that element of opposition in another canvass. Why not? We see no indications of their reconciliation to him. On the contrary, we fully believe that in a second candidacy the bolting vote against him would be greatly increased. Many men voted for him in 1884 who would vote for his adversary in 1888. The truth is, that there is in the party a large and influential class of honest and earnest men who, while admitting Mr. Blaine to be an able man, still believe him to be somewhat sordid, and not by any means immaculate. The great majority of these preferred him to his adversary in spite of their scruples, and either voted for him or refused to vote at all. But this is not likely to happen again, and the probability is that that class of people, reinforced by many sympathizers, would vote in solid phalanx against him. We see no promise of recruits, but a rare prospect of desertions in the event of his renomination."

Of course there would be such desertions. Everybody knows that thousands of Republican voters were fairly forced into voting against their will for Mr. Blaine by their distrust of the Democratic party. They honestly believed that the country would be imperilled by the election of Mr. Cleveland. All these know now that they were mistaken, and if the opportunity recurs, they will join the Mugwump ranks. Indeed, nothing has done so much to stimulate Mugwumpism of all kinds as the overthrow of this bugaboo of danger from Democratic rule. If Mr. Blaine and his blind adherents fully realized this truth, we firmly believe he would lose all desire to be again a candidate.

THE EXPULSION OF THE FRENCH PRINCES.

THERE is a good deal of indignation and sorrow felt in Europe, even among good Liberals, over the bill which has passed the French Chamber and is now before the Senate, providing for the peremptory expulsion of the heads of all families which have ever reigned in France, and their direct heirs in the male line under the custom of primogeniture, but allowing the Government to exercise its discretion with regard to other members of these families. The persons at whom the bill is aimed are the Comte de Paris and his son; the Prince Napoleon and his son being probably thrown in merely to give the measure an appearance of fairness. The extreme Radicals have long been clamoring for something of this kind, but what has precipitated it is the marriage of the Comte de Paris's daughter to a son of the King of Portugal. On this occasion the Count gave a large reception, to which the whole diplomatic corps were invited, and President Grévy wrote a letter of congratulation to the King, as if it were a national affair.

But ever since the death of the Comte de Chambord, and the consequent transfer to the younger branch of the Bourbons of whatever claim the elder branch had on the French crown, the Comte de Paris has been an object of increasing suspicion on the part of the Republicans—a suspicion, too, for which, as long as there is a large monarchical party in France, there is absolutely no cure. There is a considerable body of rich and influential people in France who consider the Count entitled by divine right to reign over France and establish such institutions as would to him seem best. There is another and perhaps larger body of rich and influential people who, while thinking nothing of his divine right, nevertheless prefer a monarchical government, and think the heir of French kings is the best person to exercise it. In fact, everything which is called "society" in France—that is, the well-to-do class which takes its pleasure and measures its success and importance in life by dining and picnicking and intermarrying with other well-to-do people—is still monarchical in its tastes, and has a great deal of reverence for a man who can show thirty-six generations of illustrious descent, and whose ancestors for nearly a thousand years were the foremost figures in French history and among the foremost in European history. In fact, there are not many Frenchmen, who know any history at all, whose imagination is not touched by facts like these. On the people, it is true, they have absolutely no hold. Mr. Hamerton, in his charming picture of French country life, 'Around My House,' mentions in illustration of this that when the Comte de Paris passed through the neighborhood there was probably not a peasant in the whole region who knew that he was the heir to the French throne, or anything about him, so completely has the monarchical tradition perished in the country districts. But this does not reassure French politicians. They have been so long accustomed to see the form of the government settled in Paris, and so long accustomed to see it carried on by people "in good society," that the doings and sayings of that class still fill them with anxiety. They are made nervous by the crowds of well-dressed people who accept the Comte de Paris's invitations, by the practice, both among them and among the army officers, of addressing him as "Monseigneur"—the old title which used to be reserved for princes of the blood and bishops—and by the eagerness even of military men to be among his friends or belong to his "set." They cannot believe that all this does not cover intrigues of some sort looking to a restoration, or that, as long as there are so many people ready to suggest a restoration, the Count himself can help thinking about it and seeking it.

They feel, moreover, that as long as the Count is the centre of a circle of this sort, and his movements are watched and chronicled by the press as those of an important personage, with a possible political future, the Republic will never assume in the eyes of the people that air of finality which is in France so necessary to the success of a government. Thus far the Republic has given no more proof of durability than any of the half-dozen governments which since the Revolution have preceded it. That is to say, every one of them has lasted about twenty years, and the Republic has not yet succeeded in lasting as long as that. The consequence of this experience is that every Frenchman looks with more or less certainty to seeing the Government under which he lives overturned; he does not expect it "to last his time"; he thinks he will see the end of it just as his father saw the end of the one which preceded it. Each generation, in fact, thinks the régime it lives under only transitory, and looks for a revolution in its own day.

To conquer this expectation, or live it down, is now the great aim of the Republicans, and they not unnaturally, as it seems to us, seek to remove from French soil every agency which in any considerable degree helps to keep it alive or strengthen it. That the presence of the heir to the throne in Paris, as the head of a large and wealthy circle, is one of

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these agencies, nobody can deny. There is no doubt that the Comte de Paris is an accomplished and estimable man, who loves France well, and who would not set on foot any scheme of violence against the existing order of things. But he cannot help being the centre of revolutionary hopes. He cannot help reminding people or suggesting to people that something else than the Republic is possible or even probable. He cannot help, in short, being a Pretender — a worthy and honorable Pretender, we admit, but still a Pretender. Now, why should a republic permit a Pretender to remain on its soil any more than a monarchy? We confess we do not see. No monarchy has ever yet permitted a rival claimant to the throne to live within its dominions and keep on foot a court circle of his own. One of the first things the successful claimant of a crown always does is to expel his rivals, and the rivals go cheerfully and naturally, and wait on foreign soil for something to turn up, or until, as poor Chambord used to say, "God's hour strikes."

This is hard, but it is simply one of the numerous discomforts attendant on the condition of a deposed or disinherited sovereign in our day. France will in many ways lose by the departure of the Orleans family, but their absence will in all probability make the Republican experiment easier, and if so, the Republicans are fairly entitled to ask for it; and on the point whether it is necessary, their judgment is certainly worth more than that of any foreigner.

PASCAL AND HIS 'THOUGHTS.'

PARIS, June 4, 1886.

THE 'Étude sur le Scepticisme de Pascal, considéré dans le livre des *Pensées*,' by M. Édouard Droz, is a new commentary on a book which is still enigmatical in many parts, and which will always be considered one of the greatest works in French literature. The 'Pensées' appeared under this title, 'Thoughts of M. Pascal on Religion and on Some Other Subjects, found after his death among his papers' (Paris: Guillaume Deprez, 1670). This little volume was a mere collection of notes taken by Pascal with a view to a great apologetic work on the Christian religion. The notes and fragments were found in different *cahiers*, without any order or any apparent method. Pascal wrote his 'Thoughts' on little bits of paper whenever they had taken hold of his mind. They seemed at first so informal that his friends doubted whether they could be printed and published. These friends remembered, however, an occasion when Pascal had developed orally the plan and method of his Apology, and they classified the thoughts (those, at least, which did not seem too obscure) as well as they could according to their recollections.

Pascal's work cannot be confounded with the works of the moralists of his time. It is full of maxims, but his object was not merely to strike intellectual medals, if I may so express myself, like Mme. de Sablé or La Rochefoucauld: Pascal clearly felt the influence of the literature of his time, and the form of detached thoughts or maxims was a favorite with his contemporaries. But the 'Reflections, or Moral Sentences and Maxims' of La Rochefoucauld appeared only in 1665, and, therefore, they could not have inspired Pascal, who, besides, had the most original mind, and did not belong to the "imitatores, servum pecus." It seems probable that Mme. de Sablé asked Pascal for some maxims, and that many of the 'Thoughts,' in their terse form, were written for the select company which was assembled at Port-Royal. Some of the 'Thoughts' were found in the portfolios of Vallant, the secretary of Mme. de Sablé.

There is some danger in the excess of conciseness which is characteristic of the form of the "maxims": too much thought is placed in few words, and by this process the "maxim" becomes often a sort of Procrustean bed. But with Pascal we have not much to fear, as his "maxims" are but notes and indications; they are not his object, they are only his means. What was his object? It was, as we have said, to write an Apologia of the Christian religion. M. Cousin made a great sensation in the literary and philosophical world when he undertook to prove that Pascal prepared this Apologia for himself as well as for his contemporaries, and that the secret of the 'Pensées,' or of their apparent inconsistencies, lay in what he called scepticism. M. Faugère rendered a great service when he published the autograph manuscript of Pascal in all its unrevisedness, with even mere portions of phrases and isolated words. Then came M. Havet, who, in a very remarkable work, united, in this collection of notes, what seemed to have a precise sense, and put all the fragments in a convenient and logical order. We must cite also M. Molinier, who gave in 1877-79 a new and more correct edition of the 'Pensées.' M. Molinier, in his preface, treated the question of Pascal's scepticism. This question has not really been solved. Can it ever be? Can we go down in the abyss of any human soul? M. Droz denies the scepticism of Pascal, and will have it that his faith was not tainted by any doubt.

We know that Pascal, at the time when he wrote his 'Pensées,' had entirely given himself to religious ideas; that he always bore on his person an act of faith, a sort of religious confession (which has been called the amulet of Pascal); but we know also that his soul was not always at rest. In a letter to his sister, when he was already a believer, but had not yet felt the effect of grace, he confessed that he felt a great abandonment on the side of God; that he felt no attraction, that he was only drawn by his reason and by his mind, and not by the movement of God. At other times he is full of joy, he has "certainty, joy, peace." M. Droz maintains that Pascal really believed in the miracles of Port-Royal. M. Havet says, also, that the "polemical discussion which arose from the miracle of the Holy-Thorn was the origin of the 'Pensées.'" Mme. Périer says formally that "the joy which the miracle gave him was so great that he was penetrated with it, . . . and it was on this occasion that he showed this extreme desire to work at the refutation of the principal and most false reasonings of the atheist." In the opinion of M. Droz, Pascal was not a sceptic trying to find his way to religion, but an ardent believer, yet a believer who knew sceptics well, and who was trying first to combat them with their own weapons.

"Let us not," he says, "place Pascal among the French moralists between La Rochefoucauld and La Bruyère, and let us well understand their different points of view. The authors of the century study man or men in a series of analyses, having for their only object to collect them in a synthesis. Pascal, on the contrary, is a profoundly religious man, whose faith is entire and cannot be augmented. If he undertakes the study of man, it is only one of his means to a certain end."

M. Scherer, the most profound of our present critics, does not quite agree with M. Droz: "I believe," he says, "that Pascal believes and doubts in turn, but always very seriously; that the boldness and the penetration of his mind show him difficulties which he tries to conquer by reasoning, but which he can sometimes only avoid." The real secret of the 'Pensées' is the secret of the great, profound, and troubled mind of Pascal. That there was in this mind something excessive, cannot be doubted. He was really what must be called a genius; that is to say, he was always superior to the subject he touched, he was a born master of things. As a child he rediscovered the geometry of Euclid. Nothing could enslave him, chain him. Staying in Normandy with his father, an *intendant des tailles*, or receiver of taxes, he amuses himself with making an arithmetical machine. He discovers the properties of the cycloid curve, merely to forget the pain of a toothache. He is at one moment on the verge of the discovery of the differential calculus. His physical discoveries seem to be mere inspirations, like his mathematical discoveries. When he becomes acquainted with Port-Royal, and feels the charm of this admirable society of pure minds, he finds his new friends engaged in a quarrel with the Jesuits. He throws himself boldly in front of the battle, and in a few days writes the first 'Lettre à un Provincial.' In a moment, he shakes to its very foundation the powerful society. But all this was a mere preparation. Whether as a polemist or as a geometer, it seems that Pascal thought only of putting himself in training. He attaches but a slight importance to his discoveries; the only important thing is salvation. How can he reconcile a frivolous, corrupt society with religion? And his religion is not religion made easy, the religion of the world, the religion of the Jesuits and the casuists; it is the religion of Port-Royal—the pure, and austere, and puritanic doctrine of the *solitaires*.

When he began his Apologia, he saw at once that the first duty of the apologist was to be understood, and therefore to understand well his interlocutor. The interlocutor here is man taken in the abstract, or, if you like, human nature, with all its shortcomings, its defects, its ignorance, its limitations. This is why Pascal begins his work by a study or description of man, the most powerful, the most profound that ever has been written. This is why the tone of the 'Pensées' is so pressing, so passionate, so fervent. It is like an eloquent conversation with somebody whom you are anxious to persuade. You address yourself to his heart as well as to his mind—even to his prejudices, to his interests. Some of the arguments of Pascal have been thought very strange, some have even been an occasion of scandal; but those who have accused him of being a sophist, or even an infidel, have not understood his method. He wrote for unbelievers, and he sometimes adopted their language and identified himself with them for a moment. His great object is to carry conviction, to move, to stir the dormant waters of the soul. He acts with the sinner as a father who speaks to a little child. If he deals with a gambler, he offers him a wager. "I will only act with you," he says, "according to your own principles, and I intend to show you by the same way you reason every day on things of the smallest consequence (on your game of cards or the amount of a bet) in what way you ought to reason in this, and what side you ought to take in the solution of this important question of the existence of God." Then comes the argument, which has become famous in the philosophic school under the name of the argument of the wager. "God exists or he does not," says Pascal to his interlocutor. "You must accept one or the other alternative. From the fact that you are a man and are embarked in this life, you must believe one or the other, so as to regulate your life by your decision. Which way will you adopt? Reason, you say, cannot determine you, since in your opinion such questions are above the domain of your reason. Then fol-

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low your interest, and see that the stakes are very different. If you admit the existence of God, you run the chance of gaining an infinity of life, infinitely happy; if you do not admit it, you gain merely the free disposition of your terrestrial life. So, the chances being equal, it is more advantageous to bet on the side on which the gain is the greatest."

Many have been scandalized by this argument—M. Havet among others; but it is quite clear that this is merely the play of a mathematical mind, and, if you look at it very seriously, what does the argument mean which is not found in the famous "Initium sapientiæ timor Domini"? The argument of the wager is only a forcible form given to the hope of heaven and the fear of punishment.

We cannot, however, repeat often enough that the 'Pensées' do not constitute a doctrine: they are merely the discussions of a powerful mind with itself, the struggles of a living conscience; and this is what makes them so interesting. If the Apologia had been finished, put in fine order, and pruned of all excrescences of thought and of sentiment, it would not have, in our opinion, the almost dramatic interest of the 'Pensées.' Renan has writen somewhere, in his own paradoxical style, "that the finest thoughts are those which have never been expressed." This is quite true if we mean those dreams of our intellectual life which float before us in the hours of solitude and of isolation. Pascal gives a sort of life to these phantoms; his written 'Thoughts' are the most sincere picture of the troubles of a sensitive soul. He is ironical, he is sublime, he rises and he falls, he doubts and he believes, he is alarmed and he is confident. He is inexorable in his criticism of the metaphysical proofs of the existence of God, he is not less inexorable in his criticism of ordinary morals. He anticipates Kant and his analysis. His good faith is absolute, his logic is terrible, but he has a refuge in faith: he believes, and why does he believe? He has seen in the religion of Christ a revelation of moral beauty which has taken possession of him. He is not convinced by argument, he is drawn by the ideal forces of sentiment. He looks all the time for proofs, and sometimes he seems to think his proofs triumphant; but at other times he is struck by the insufficiency of the best arguments, and reminds us that God must be a hidden God. He talks sometimes as a lawyer, and sometimes as a friend. He is essentially a mystic; he has sinned and he will sin no more, he has been touched by grace and enjoys peace; he feels so sure of himself and of his faith that he can recognize the poverty of all argumentation. His attempt at an Apologia ends in the vanity of all *apologiæ*, and the recognition of the fact that the religious mind is directed by hidden laws.

Correspondence.

THE CLERGY AND THE LABOR PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to make one or two observations concerning your comments upon my sermon of last Sunday? In an earlier sermon of the series, I had spoken as plainly as my command of English permitted to the workingmen who heard me, concerning the prime duty of self-help; assuring them that there was no help to come from the heavens above or the earth beneath as a substitute for the very qualities which you commend as the ample solution of the Labor Problem. Having done this, in the last sermon of the course I proceeded to speak of what I supposed to be the generally admitted conditions of our civilization which make this solution of the Labor Problem harder than necessary. To him who sees nothing in our economic and social and political conditions handicapping Labor in this effort at self-help, these concluding remarks must have seemed superfluous, and such strictures as you passed must commend themselves as entirely appropriate to such a work of supererogation. I am not, however, one of that happy class who thus look out upon our present environment. Seeing, as I think, very many things which make such a solution of the Labor Problem needlessly hard for our workingmen, I felt constrained to indicate what might be done to better those conditions. As you observed, I did point to many lines of action, but I did this precisely because I wanted to bear in upon the minds of the workingmen the fact that there was no ready-made solution of this larger problem—that the good time coming would have to come by a general advance along the whole line of civilization, in which each of us might lend a hand from his own position.—Yours truly, R. Heber Newton.

Garden City, L. I., June 11.

MR. MANNING'S RESIGNATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Of the many thousands who have read without direct personal interest Mr. Manning's letter to the President, almost if not quite all will recognize the utterance of an able and faithful official, and will regret the loss of his services to the country; but very few will probably appreciate the real significance of that letter. A short extract will serve as a text for indicating this:

"Our present tariff laws are a needless oppression instead of an easy burden. Our currency is a chaos into which we pour forced purchases of one of the precious metals, a mechanical increment under a coinage law so ill judged and untimely, etc. All our customs revenue might be collected by strictly revenue duties upon a few score articles instead of by extravagant or prohibitory duties upon more than 4,000 articles. A better currency than exists elsewhere might be had by a few lines of repealing and empowering legislation, followed by two or three years of capable administration of the Treasury. Under the operation of currency laws and tariff laws now in force, which you and the present Congress were elected to repeal and reform, the burdened industries of our country are plunging heavily along a miry road towards foreseen danger."

That this gloomy view of affairs is justified by facts is not the most important point. The curious part of it is, that the nominal head of the finances, the confidential adviser and nominee of the President, has hardly more power to apply any remedy than an ordinary citizen, while his only public utterance on the subject, outside of his annual reports to Congress, is this wail of despair addressed to the President on taking leave of his office. The real conduct of the finances is in the lobby, and the Secretary of the Treasury, in order to accomplish anything, must resort to the same expedients and stand on the same level as any agent of a protected interest. Meantime, in what a helpless chaos Congress is floundering; how completely it is at the mercy of the keen and skilful intriguers who pull the wires by which its movements are directed, ought to be apparent to anybody who reads a daily paper. Is it not the simplest common sense, the most obvious interest of the country, that the Secretary of the Treasury, being nominally responsible for the finances, should have some voice in the conduct of them; that he should be able on the floor of Congress, the only place where it can be done with any effect, to explain to the country why things are going wrong, and how they can be made to go right? G. B.

Boston, June 14, 1886.

TWO POINTS IN ENGLISH CONSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of a new English grammar, as called for by a recent correspondent of the *Nation*, may I be allowed space in which to call attention to two constructions?

(1.) A Frenchman or Italian says, "You are stronger than I *didn't* think you were," where it is plain that the "not" pops up to the surface out of the other thought, "I did not think you were so strong."

In our language we frequently hear such a sentence as "I should not be surprised if it didn't rain this evening," the second "not" making the speaker say precisely the opposite of what he means.* The influence of the first negative works forward and produces a second, just as, in the common solecism, "I like those sort of girls," the last plural works backward and produces "those" for "that."

How shall we account for the *omitted* negative in the following? "He evidently dislikes manual labor as much as anybody, however, and does not mean to do any more of it than he can help" (*Nation*, No. 1089, p. 392). I was about to say that it is perfectly clear that the thing really meant is, "any more than he can *not* help"; but, in fact, it is not so clear. At least, I have right often found persons who could only with considerable difficulty be made to see that "not" is absolutely required by the sense; that "not" before "help" is just as much *in* place as it is out of place in "I should not be surprised if it didn't rain." I do not think I ever heard or saw the logically correct form "than I can't help." The desire to avoid a negative cannot be the explanation: our main tendency is just the other way.

(2.) There is a common use of "have" not noticed in the latest Webster, nor in the Worcester of some years ago. Nor do I find mention of it in Maetzner: "Mr. So and So had a valuable horse stolen last night." "Ney had five horses shot under him in the last charge at Waterloo." "Sometimes the scientific man has put upon him the task of devising a terminology as well as a nomenclature" (Whitney, 'Language and the Study of Language'). The explanation is clear: it is nothing more than a grammatical device to enable us to have a passive expression in which the *person* and not the *thing* shall be the subject. When the active construction has an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person (as, "the judge granted (to) the man a new trial"), we can easily turn this into a passive and say, "the man was granted a new trial." But as soon as we have the person in the active, governed by other prepositions than "to," we do not use a simple passive—*e. g.*, "He stole a horse from me." "I was stolen a horse" will not do, but "I *had a horse stolen* out of my stable last night" meets the case very well. This form of passive often comes into play in rendering into English the similar Greek idiom, as the Greeks too were fond of having a *person* as the subject of the passive: "He was taken away all his property" naturally becomes, "He had all his property taken away." Is there any other explanation to be given of this use of "have"? A curious extension of this hankering after a personal passive occurs in a translated article in the *Popular Science Monthly* for February, 1886, p. 527, end: "I had several cases of men who *had been spit in the eyes* by the spitting-snake," where a possessive genitive is made the subject of the passive. This is matched by a recent remark attributed to a man who had just been jolted in riding—"That hole ought to be throwed dirt into."—Respectfully, A. H.

Hampden Sidney, Va.

* Is not our correspondent dealing here with a local or southern solecism?—Ed. Nation.

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REPUBLICANS AND PROHIBITION IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that in closing your editorial, in your issue of June 3, entitled "Growing Power of the Prohibitionists," which, by the way, contains much of truth, and for that reason demands correction, you say:

"Every time the Republican party has been brought squarely to the same issue it has 'dodged' in the same way, and it is small wonder that the temperance people have at last become tired of the game."

By the phrase, "in the same way," as is shown by the context of the article, is meant that every time the Republican party has been called upon to take a stand on the moral issue presented by the liquor question, the party leaders have busied themselves with a calculation as to whether "there were as many temperance voters as there are Irish and German Republican voters," and, failing to determine the question, or resolving the problem against the temperance voter, the Republican party has, without exception, "dodged" the issue.

Will you kindly correct your statement or explain wherein consisted and when occurred the "dodges" during the six several times that this moral issue has been presented to the Republican party of the States of Iowa and Kansas during the last few years? L. W. Clapp.

Iowa City, June 8, 1886.

[We had rather in mind the Republican party in its national aspect, but our language was not carefully chosen.—Ed. Nation.]

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have frequent occasion to speak with the students of archæology of various nations who come to Athens on the scope and work of the American School, and almost without exception they express surprise at the singular device of sending out each year a new head for the institution. Nor does it become more reasonable when explained as a device for getting a head without any charge on the resources of the School by the method which your readers probably all know, and which at best results simply in sending one more student out to learn archæology, and calling him home again when he has learned a little of what the director ought to know. The general opinion is, that nothing could be expected of such an institution, and my own experience, like the testimony of the students, is that nothing worth the trouble is achieved. The sending out of a professor who knows nothing but ancient Greek to teach in Athens what he can just as well teach at home, may be very pleasant for the professor if he needs change; but to suppose that a school of Hellenic studies can be started in this way, is as absurd as the hypothesis that the United States of America can establish a diplomatic body by sending meritorious politicians abroad for a term of four years and then replacing them by a new lot.

If the object of the School in Athens is to teach the ancient Greek, it is a mistake altogether, for ancient Greek can be better learned in Germany than in Athens; if to teach modern Greek, an American professor or school is quite superfluous; and, so far as philology is concerned, therefore, the School is sheer waste of labor and money. Students come to the French and German schools to learn archæology, and for this Athens is peculiarly adapted in being the centre of ancient Greek life, and of that sphere of investigation which is calculated to throw light on Greek polity, sociology, letters, and art by new discoveries through excavation and exploration. To send a man who knows nothing of archæology to direct the School for even a year is mocking the young men who come here to study, for it only gives them a fellow-student no wiser than they. It is a perfectly useless expense, and the same end would be gained by having a housekeeper who should keep the building in order and see that the books were not stolen. And if there are no idle ambitions to be gratified, a better disposition of the money, I should say, would be to employ it in coöperation with the English Society for a school open to students of all qualified English and American universities.

It is not purely on à-priori grounds that I judge the American School to be thus far a conspicuous failure, but on the testimony of the students themselves, who, so far as I have heard their evidence, have found it an utter disappointment and illusion; and it is even in response to repeated requests from the students of this year that I have promised to ventilate the matter in the *Nation*. If they came here without any connection with any school, they could have the advantages of the Greek, German, and French libraries, and the advice of the directors and senior students of the schools, all given generously to all students who seek them; and our School is therefore no advantage to them.

The first requisite, even before a building, is to provide the School with a competent permanent head, who shall have had opportunity to learn at least as much of archæology as one of the scholars will acquire in one season's work. As a matter of course he must know ancient Greek thoroughly well, and be a master of epigraphy, because in most cases a thorough knowledge of Greek epigraphy is the key of archæology, as far as it is a positive science. Other nations generally make such positions as this would be, provision for their able scholars who have not private means to follow classical studies, and whose enthusiasm for them is sufficient to induce them to accept teaching positions: they are the recognized compensation for lives devoted to erudite research. To wait till we have an accomplished archæologist and epigraphist at once, educated in America, would be to postpone the utility of the School to the Greek Kalends, for it is only in the classical world that such an education can be obtained; but what we can hope for is, that somebody may be found who will be able to take the American student, arriving full of enthusiasm and ready to be put in the right path and started off intelligently, and prevent him from losing heart and enthusiasm and wasting his opportunities through finding no kind of instruction in response to his demand—save the bland permission of his director to make use of the library whenever the director and his family have no use for it. The general opinion of the students this winter, as well as of the local archæologists, so far as I have had any conversation on the subject, indicate Dr. Sterrett as the person to fill the position which the existence of the School supposes. As an explorer and epigraphist he is not only our best, but he has attained a reputation among the first of his generation, and his knowledge of archæology is far beyond the stage at which our young students must begin their work at Athens. I do not know any other American scholar half so well qualified by study and enthusiasm in his science to fill the place which must be filled if the School is not to remain the mockery it now is. I understand that Dr. Sterrett has been offered a professorship of Greek in some Western college; and as his means do not allow him to remain in the pursuit of classical discovery, in which he has shown such indefatigable enthusiasm and attained such splendid success, we may have the misfortune of losing him from the field where our national vanity, if not our national recognition of merit, should maintain him. It is most probable that in America Dr. Sterrett is less known than to Hellenists in Germany and England; but certainly he must have become sufficiently well known to our scholars to call out more authoritative recommendation than mine, though none may be better able than I to state the needs of the School, or judge how utterly it fails, under its present organization, to respond to any part of the plan of its founders and supporters.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Athens, May 27.

PUBLIC MANNERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In M. Zola's last book, 'L'Œuvre,' among the many extraordinary descriptions of Paris and Parisians—extraordinary alike from the scenes themselves and from the power of their delineation—there is one which is perhaps worth a moment's attention on the part of those persons who are not likely to read the book. It is worth attention because M. Zola writes not as a romancer, but as an historian, or, one may say more accurately, as a scientific traveller; and if we may accept (and in some measure it would seem that we must accept) his observations as documentary evidence of what can be witnessed in the centre of the highest civilization, it may well give us pause as to the meaning of "the highest civilization."

The page I am about to translate is the account of the "manners" of a crowd at an exhibition of pictures, an exposition of the *rejected* pictures of the Salon of the year. I must confess that it is impossible to translate the style of M. Zola; but the following is the substance of the passage.

I must premise that the "great work" of the hero of the story, a landscape with figures, is among these pictures; and he, tragically uncertain whether or not the public will recognize his genius (as the jury of the Salon has not done), and bestow on him the praises really his due, goes to the Palais de l'Industrie (the place of exhibition) agitated with excitement. As he enters one after another the various halls, he hears everywhere the laughter of the public, "the contagious hilarity of a crowd come together for amusement"; but, by a deceptive accident, gaining courage about his success as he advances, he comes at last to his own picture. And looking at it with clear and intelligent eyes he finds it is quite other than it had seemed to him in his atelier, and perceives it is a failure, but a failure redeemed by touches of genius:

"He turned to Sandoz and said simply: 'They have cause to laugh, it is incomplete. No matter, some parts of it are excellent.' His friend tried to draw him away, but on the contrary he obstinately drew nearer. Now that he had judged his work he listened to the crowd and observed it. The explosion continued, increasing in an ascending gamut of wild laughter. As soon as the visitors were within the door he saw them become open-mouthed, and their eyes almost disappear in the breadth of their smiles; and then were heard the noisy chuckles of the fat men, the harsh cachinnations of the thin men, and dominating over these the little sharp titters of the women. Opposite, against the wainscot, young men threw themselves back as if they were being tickled. A lady let herself drop on to a seat, her knees drawn together, choking, trying to catch her breath behind her handkerchief. The report of this 'droll' picture spread; people crowded in from all quarters; they came in troops, pushing, trying to get in front. 'Where is it? Over there! Oh, what a joke!' And witticisms flew fast; . . . [as] 'Look! it has been dyed; the flesh tints are blue, the trees are blue; he has certainly dipped it into a blue-pot, this picture of his!' Those who did not laugh became angry; this bluishness, this new notation of light, they took as an insult. Was art to be thus outraged? Old gentlemen brandished their canes. A serious personage departed, out of temper, declaring to his wife that he did not like bad jokes. But another, a conscientious little man, looked in the catalogue for an explanation of the picture, and, read-

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ing aloud, for the benefit of his companion, the title 'Open Air,' it gave birth to a formidable renewal around him of cries and hootings. The words were caught up, repeated, commented on: *Plein air, oh! oui, plein air! . . . tout en l'air, tra la la laire!* The crowd grew larger, and became more and more insulting; the faces, reddening in the increasing heat, had each the gaping, stupid mouth of those who are ignorant undertaking to judge of painting, and expressing all the sum of arrant blunders, of ridiculous reflections, of silly and malicious sneers that the sight of an original work draws forth from middle-class doltishness."

I should perhaps say that the sentences I have omitted indicate that the nature of the subject of the picture, as well as its treatment, displeased the spectators; but what I want to bring forward is the good taste and refinement, or, without irony, the odious vulgarity of such a scene.

* *

Notes.

We are glad to learn from the publishers, Belford, Clarke & Co., that the recent total destruction of their premises in Chicago did not involve the loss of the plates of Gen. Fremont's Memoirs, which were stored in Philadelphia.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press 'The Rear-Guard of the Revolution,' by James D. Gilmore ("Edmund Kirke"), a story of the pioneer settlement of Tennessee under James Robertson and John Sevier; and 'Studies in Modern Socialism and Labor Problems,' Sunday evening lectures by T. Edwin Brown, D.D., of Providence.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, have in preparation an illustrated work, 'Among the Lighthouses' (namely, of the Maine coast), by Mrs. Mary Bradford Crowninshield, wife of Commander Crowninshield.

Lotze's 'Outlines of Æsthetics,' translated by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd, will be published next month by Ginn & Co.

Next fall D. C. Heath & Co. expect to bring out a work on 'Manual Training,' by Prof. Woodward, of Washington University, St. Louis. It will give practical directions, based on long experience, as to the organization and conduct of manual training schools.

Ginn & Co. will issue, in season for the fall school term, 'Homer,' being the first part of a short history of Greek literature by Prof. R. C. Jebb of Glasgow University.

Mr. Henry George's 'Protection or Free Trade' (Henry George & Co.) is a restatement of his well-known views on the evils of private land-ownership. Real free trade, according to Mr. George, is exemption from all taxation, the public revenues of every kind being collected from land in the form of a rent-charge due to the state. The argument against protective tariffs is very strongly put, but its value is lost by a declaration that the abolition of such tariffs would be of no advantage to the workingman, since the landowner would intercept and swallow up all the resulting gains. The land-owner is the robber who takes all that is not needed to keep the residue of the human race alive. Why this cormorant should allow even a bare subsistence to his fellow-men is not clear, there being no law compelling him to do so, nor any agreement among land-owners themselves to restrict their exactions at any particular point.

The seventh volume of the works of Alexander Hamilton, edited by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, has appeared (Putnams). It opens with a speech deprecating an attempt on the part of New York to recover Vermont, chiefly on the ground of expediency, but also because of the repugnance of forcible dominion over an unwilling people to ideas to which the Revolution had given currency. The eulogy of General Greene follows, and is a striking summary review of the military career of that commander. Most interesting of all the pieces in this volume are Hamilton's drafts of speeches and messages for Washington, including the Farewell Address. Criticism of Jefferson's message of December 7, 1801, fills a large space. So does the defence of Harry Croswell for his libel on Jefferson in the *Wasp*. An inedited fragment on the French Revolution is curious, but of slight importance. Not so is the elaborate defence of the Funding System. The volume closes with the private correspondence, which comes down to 1779, and will be continued in the eighth volume. Great pains have been taken here to insure correct transcripts from the original in the case of all the letters, whether heretofore published or inedited.

The odds and ends of Goldsmith will be found in the two concluding volumes of his Works (embracing five in all) lately added to the Bohn series (New York: Scribner & Welford). His biographies of Voltaire, Nash, Parnell, and Bolingbroke are followed by numerous specimens of his hack-work in criticism, by later collected essays, prefaces, and introductions, and—in deference to Mr. Charles Welsh's very probable vindication of Goldsmith's authorship—by Goody Two-Shoes. There is a copious index to the entire series.

No. 750 in Lovell's Library is 'Somebody's Story,' by Hugh Conway, which one may read in fair print first, and then afterwards in the facsimile of the author's minute MSS. Happily, the tale is short, or the latter reading would be destructive of eyesight.

Teachers should have their attention called to the following text-books issued by Macmillan: 'Johnson's Lives of Dryden and Pope,' with introduction and notes by Alfred Milnes, who sketches the life of Johnson himself; Dr. Buchheim's 'Heine's Harzreise,' expurgated and furnished with notes—like the foregoing, one of the Clarendon Press series; J. E. Nixon's 'Prose Extracts for Translation into English and Latin,' in which the extracts from ancient and modern authors are cleverly matched in spirit, and printed facing each other, as, Burke against Cicero, Robertson against Sallust, etc.; and the Rev. Ellis C. Mackie's 'Parallel Passages for Translation into Greek and English,' in which a similar juxtaposition is carried out.

A book which seems worth considering is De Fontaine's 'Condensed Long-Hand,' or a system of phonetic abbreviation designed for the use of the type-writer under dictation. The author anticipates for it an increase of speed on this instrument of from fifty to a hundred per cent.—in short, that a close approach can be made to the stenographic rate. The American News Company are the publishers.

The eighth issue of 'Zell's Classified United States Business Directory,' for 1886, has reached us from the American Reporter Co., 65 Duane St. As it dispenses with any prefatory account of annual revision, it appears to trust to its established favor with the public. The work is primarily classified by trades, etc., and the subordinate arrangement is of course geographical. At the close, some foreign countries are added—France, the West Indies, South America, Australia, etc.—with the reverse arrangement.

Booklore for June (D. G. Francis) begins a bibliography of English topographical works with those relating to Bedfordshire. The arrangement, singularly enough, is by authors and not places.

There are not a few eminent names among the contributors to the first volume of the *New Princeton Review* (A. C. Armstrong & Son), and the table of contents shows that current topics have been well looked after. No one but the editor could say to what an extent he has had to act as a purveyor, and to what extent as a sifter of articles spontaneously and unstintedly offered to him—in other words, whether the *Review* supplies a want, or merely enlarges the opportunities of those who make literature a profession. Nor is the close of a first volume a proper time to raise such a question.

The Appalachian Mountain Club, Boston, is about to issue advance sheets of its forthcoming map of the White Mountains, on a scale of 1: 50,000, by tracing what is now done of it, roughly lettering it, and copying by the blue-print process. A northern and a southern sheet will thus be supplied (apparently to members only) at about seventy-five cents each.

We have already had occasion to mention an illustrated paper on the movement cure in China, by Dr. Macgowan, which originally appeared in the series of Medical Reports issued by the Imperial Maritime Customs at Shanghai. There is in these reports much to repay the curious lay reader, and now and again one finds papers of only indirect or limited medical bearing. Such, in the issues (27-29th) before us, are the notes on the aborigines of southern Formosa, or those on black lime—amorphous graphite, used to mix with lime in making a capital mortar, or for dying cloths, and also capable of medical application. There are meteorological notes, too, and district health maps. Though foreign male physicians are seldom called in by the Chinese unless in extreme cases, their native practice is increasing, particularly the obstetric branch. But it is impossible to obtain bodies for dissection. One physician reports that not a few cases of injury from falls, as broken bones, burns, and scalds, arise from deformed feet; another, that leprosy is not contagious, contrary to the view which is fashionable on the Sand Lots.

A new and recast edition of Victor Duruy's 'Histoire des Grecs,' with 1,500 illustrations and 50 maps and plans, is now appearing in parts from the press of Hachette. It will make three volumes.

The admirable studies of Russian literature which M. Melchior de Vogüé has been contributing to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* are about to be republished in a single volume, 'Le Roman Russe' (Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern). The preface on Realism in Literature is to be found in the *Revue* of May 15. It will delight the soul of Mr. Howells.

A year ago M. Ch. Gueullette made a little book out of his criticisms on the various performances at the Théâtre-Français, and it is good evidence as to the surpassing merits of that play-house that he has now put forth a second volume devoted to 1885, and is intending, apparently, to continue the series annually. His 'Répertoire de la Comédie-Française' (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern) is rather lightly written, but it is introduced by a very characteristic preface by M. Théodore de Banville, is beautifully printed by MM. Jouaust & Sigaux, and is adorned with an etched portrait by M. Abot of Mlle. Dudlay, the tragic actress whose reëngagement by M. Claretie has caused the resignation of M. Delaunay and M. Coquelin, the two best comedians of the Comédie-Française.

The British Museum has very recently acquired two manuscripts of considerable interest to students of the history of the American Revolution. One is an account of Burgoyne's campaign, written by a Lieut. Digby of the English Army, who describes briefly, in a dry, precise, professional tone, the various military movements of which he was cognizant. Those operations in which Digby was personally employed are narrated with rather more fulness, but the object of the whole is strictly military, and there is little reflection of the author's opinions or feelings. The other document, the title of which is at this writing the very last entry in the manuscript

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catalogue of the Museum, is an account of some passages in his own life by Alexander Chesney, a native of Ireland who settled in the South Carolina up-country in 1772, and who served on both sides during the Revolution, but very reluctantly, if we may believe him, on the side of the colonists. In the later years of the war he was Captain of Loyalists, and distinguished himself, apparently, by his courage and enterprise. His story is told with sufficient modesty. He gives many interesting particulars of the partisan warfare in Carolina, and relates only too briefly his experience at the battle of King's Mountain, where he was wounded.

The eighth annual session of the American Philological Association will be held at Ithaca, N. Y., in the pleasant Botanical Lecture-room of Sage College, Cornell University, beginning July 15, at 3 P. M. President Peck's address will be delivered on the evening of that date. Members intending to be present are requested to notify Prof. W. T. Hewett, the local secretary; and those who will read papers, to send their titles to Prof. John H. Wright, at Hanover, N. H. The eleventh annual session of the Spelling Reform Association will begin at the same place on Thursday, July 15. President March's address will review "Ten Years of Spelling Reform," and should be interesting.

—The April number of the *English Historical Review* contains some articles that will command general interest. One of these we have already mentioned—Mr. Cunningham's paper upon "The Repression of the Woollen Manufacture in Ireland." The opening article, "The Growth of Plebeian Privilege in Rome," by Mr. Strachan-Davidson, does not cover the whole ground of the growth of plebeian privileges, but is confined to a single question—the establishment of the plebeian right of legislation by the Hortensian law, and the relation of this law to the Valerio-Horatian and the Publilian laws, which apparently enact the same privilege. The theory here presented is marked by the practical and commonsense character which we should expect from an Englishman. It is that the original power of the plebeian assembly, as shown in the Terentilian law and the Icilian law *de Aventino publicando* (both of them antecedent to the law of Valerius and Horatius), was that of petition; the petition being considered by the Senate and then adopted by the *Comitia Centuriata*, which was, "except for the addition of a handful of patricians, the same persons who had already voted in the assemby of the *plebs*." A foot-note points out the analogy of this action of the plebs to that of the Commons in the English Parliament of the fourteenth century. This proposition seems very probable, and in it "no power is ascribed to any person or body in the state, excepting such as from independent sources of information we know that they possessed." It does not seem to us, however, to exclude Mommsen's theory of the Valerio-Horatian and Publilian laws, according to which these laws had reference not to the plebeian assembly, but to the *Comitia Tributa* proper; and it seems altogether likely that the earlier of these laws (of 449) stood in direct relation with this assembly, which makes its first appearance at just about this time. On the whole, we prefer this explanation to that of Mr. Strachan-Davidson, who would make these laws mark steps in the process of converting the right of petition into that of legislation. Another article of general interest is by Mr. James Gairdner, upon "The Death of Amy Robsart." Mr. Gairdner exposes Froude's argument to a searching examination, and shows, by full citations from Mr. Froude's documents, that they do not sustain his conclusion that she was murdered by Leicester, but rather go to prove his innocence in the matter. Mr. Simcox's article on "Alfred's Year of Battles"; Miss Hamilton's graphic description of "Paris under the Last Valois Kings"; and Mr. Bent's account of "King Theodore of Corsica" also deserve notice. And one of the most important papers is to be found in the "Notes and Documents"—an examination, by Mr. W. Aldis Wright, of the authenticity of the Squire papers, a subject extensively discussed last year in the *Academy*. The article occupies thirty-seven pages, and comes to a conclusion in favor of their genuineness, largely on the ground of the intimate knowledge that Carlyle had with everything relating to Cromwell: "Was he then completely deceived by documents which others, certainly not better qualified to judge, can at once confidently pronounce to be forgeries? I confess that I find this very difficult to believe."

—Of the recent translation of Feuillet's 'La Morte,' by J. Henry Hager, entitled 'Aliette' and published by D. Appleton & Co., it may be noted first, that, after the fashion of the day, it is expurgated; then, that (in speaking of an *écuyère*) it renders "elle a une main étonnante" by "her seat is something wonderful," and renders "C'est un grand manoir à toits pointus et surbaissés" by "It was an extensive manor-house, surbased and with pointed roofs," not observing that *surbased* applies to the roofs and to the roofs alone —and this is only one of countless instances of similar carelessness or ignorance. It may also be noted that the tone is constantly misrepresented; *e. g.*, "Je voudrais que la mémoire [de son père] fût chérie et vénérable à tout le monde comme à moi," becomes "I could wish to have his memory as cherished and revered by you as it is by me"; this speech being made by a young girl to a young man, "the first time" that she talked with him "as to a friend rather than a passing acquaintance." Again, in talking of an old house, the speaker refers to "the aspect of your home, the style and quality of the household arrangements (*la tenue de la maison*)." This is translated, "the style, the tone, and *the conduct of the family*"! A charming and clever conversation on the men and women of the society of Louis XIV. is metamorphosed into something absurd by such touches as this: "All their passions, their weaknesses, their errors," says one of the interlocutors, existed in conjunction with "un fond sérieux et solide." "Beneath all this there was a substantial foundation of *earnest belief*," says Mr. Hager —which is inexpressibly mistaken. Mr. Hager should also be informed (and in no spirit of hypercriticism) that a bishop is never addressed as "your Highness"; "Votre Grandeur" is at best "your Grace," and may be "your Lordship." Also that the Miss Edgeworth-like "my dear" from wife to husband does not represent "mon ami." Also, that *savoir gré* is not "to know," but 'to take it kindly,' 'to be grateful'; and that *un oiseau bleu* is not "a little bluebird," but 'a creature of the fancy'—'a phantom of delight.' In turning the pages one's eye is incessantly struck by such and other blunders. "Fashionable life at Paris is a terrible machinery of wheels (*engrenage*)"; "a terrible *treadmill*" we have instead, which has no relation to the idea which the succeeding sentences fully develop. But perhaps the most entirely satisfactory rendering is this—"satisfactory" as making further criticism unnecessary: "Ma femme, dont la terrible beauté, malgré ses mélanges—peut-être, helas! à cause de ses mélanges!—n'avait pas cessé de parler fortement à mon imagination"; "whose terrible beauty, in spite of its inconveniences, perhaps, alas! on account of these very inconveniences, still strongly appealed to my imagination." It is only just to say that some passages in the volume are fairly well done; but the expurgations are unjustifiable, since unavowed.

—Karl Wilhelm Nitzsch was a scholar equally distinguished in the field of Roman and of German history, and one whose influence upon historical thought in these fields was far out of proportion to his fame or the actual amount of his written works. He did not write a history either of Rome or of Germany; but his writings upon both subjects are of so profound importance, and his courses of lectures upon both made so deep an impression upon his hearers, that we have, since his death, the publication of connected works upon each, prepared by his pupils for his papers and the notes of his lectures. The German history is a work of considerable extent, the 'Geschichte der römischen Republik,' edited by Dr. George Thouret (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot) is in two thin octavo volumes. The central point of Nitzsch's researches, in relation to both Germans and Romans, is the social and economical relations of the peasantry; and his Roman history probably more than any other throws light upon the economical causes of the growth and downfall of the Roman Republic. He starts with the fundamental fact, overlooked by many writers, of the rural plebeians, as a class almost peculiar to Rome and the controlling fact of the Roman Republic. The existence of this class, the champion of the equality of the orders, and the source of the plebeian nobility, is a fact generally admitted, if not generally appreciated at its real value. What is peculiar in Nitzsch's theory is the view that these rural plebeians represented the policy of war and conquest, as opposed to the commercial policy of the old patricians; the Claudii were the leaders of this commercial policy, while the Horatii and Valerii allied themselves with the plebeian leaders. This theory is not to be accepted hastily; it gives, nevertheless, a helpful clue to the mazes of early Roman politics, and, whether true or not, will be suggestive and serviceable to students of the first decade of Livy.

—The name of the Bohemian scholar Vaníček is not an illustrious name. He himself claimed no higher position than that of being the "registrar of comparative philology," and the modest pamphlet which one of his friends has recently put forth in commemoration of him makes no extravagant demand for the man whose 'Etymological Dictionary,' whose 'Latin Grammar,' whose careful indexes to the works of Georg Curtius, are well known to all classical scholars, and have been found useful enough to insure their compiler a modest niche in the *columbarium* of philology. But here and there in the works of Vaníček there is a half-revelation of the frightful disadvantages under which this worthy scholar labored, and Dr. Glaser's pamphlet brings the painful details to the light. It is not needful to repeat them here: other and greater men have passed through like misery to high position. But the lesson of Vaníček's life has especial interest for American scholars, because, while none of them can possibly know the depths of poverty to which he was reduced, many of them know something of scarcity of books, many of them know the disadvantages of unfavorable surroundings. Here was a man of fair but not great gifts, with a mild vein of idealism to keep his spirit alive, who did good service to his department with as slender an equipment and as discouraging an environment as any American scholar can complain of. One thing, however, is worthy of note—that this man was brought into intimate relations with a brilliant genius, Aug. Schleicher, and into friendly contact with the luminous intellect, the serene balance, and the kind heart of Georg Curtius; and these two men, by their incitement and their encouragement, saved him from utter obscurity, and introduced him to the line of work by which

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he is known. To the last-named steady friend he owed his appointment, after long years of waiting in unsatisfactory positions, to the professorship of Sanskrit and comparative philology in the University of Prague, which he held only a few months before he was struck down. It is this, after all, that makes the difference between so many American and so many European careers. It is not simply the lack of suitable environment, the lack of means, the lack of will: it is the absence of that early potent, personal influence, which is hardly possible under the formal constraints of the college classroom. Fortunately a better day is at hand, and the freedom of study in the higher ranges of college life, and the specialization of work in our American universities, will bring about, is bringing about, a closer contact, a warmer sympathy between master and disciple, and a more earnest purpose to advance the frontier of knowledge in every direction.

SCHOPENHAUER IN ENGLISH.

The World as Will and Idea. By Arthur Schopenhauer. Translated from the German by R. B. Haldane, M.A., and J. Kemp, M.A. Three vols. London: Trübner & Co. 1883-1886.

ALTHOUGH the publication of an English translation of Schopenhauer's principal work has not been heralded with such a flourish of trumpets as attends many an ephemeral book of one-thousandth part its value, it would nevertheless be difficult to name more than two or three works of the century that have provided the English mind with such a strong ferment as Schopenhauer's work is calculated to supply. In Germany, as is well known, Schopenhauer has practically eclipsed all his predecessors, except Kant, in influence, although Hegel, Fichte, and Schelling still continue to be lectured on by a few octogenarians at the universities. In France, too, as the *Revue Bleue* told us the other day, Schopenhauer is not only being diligently studied at present, but there is a current to make him the fashion in literary circles, as he is in Germany. For Englishmen and Americans something has been done in the way of magazine articles, and by Mr. Sully's book on 'Pessimism,' to familiarize the public with his thoughts; yet the best abstract of his works must always be to the original as chemical is to natural wine: and for this reason the present translation cannot be too warmly welcomed. Orthodoxy in philosophy and religion will, of course, be shocked by these volumes; but no one will be able to withhold his tribute of admiration from the most poetic and fascinating philosophic writer since Plato. To give a striking instance: Prof. Bowen of Harvard, though he "detests" Schopenhauer's system, admires him so immensely as a lucid writer and thinker that he not only forgives him his sins, but apparently teaches no other philosophic treatise so much *con amore* as Schopenhauer's.

It is well known that, notwithstanding these merits, Schopenhauer had to wait many long years for recognition. "Although I was only thirty years old when the first edition of this work appeared," he tells us, "I live to see this third edition not earlier than my seventy-second year." This was written in 1859; and again a quarter of a century had to elapse before the appearance of the first English edition. That the first volume, which was issued three years ago, did not excite much attention, is principally Schopenhauer's own fault. Not only is its style less crystalline and simple than in the later volumes, but it is much less attractive because it embodies the skeleton of his metaphysical system, while the second and third volumes represent the more inviting outside—the flesh, complexion and brilliant literary dress. The author prided himself chiefly on the skeleton—the alleged discovery that the "Will" is the "Ding an sich," the essence underlying all phenomena, and heretofore considered absolutely unknowable. The effort to prove his unprovable and self-contradictory theory involves him in numerous super-subtleties and obscurities foreign to his usual manner. But in the succeeding volumes his metaphysical hobby becomes less and less obtrusive, until it finally assumes the form of an inconspicuous thread on which he strings his pearls—very much as in the 'Parerga und Paralipomena,' which forms the continuation of his main work, and which it is to be hoped the present translators will now immediately take into hand.

Those who do not wish to make a systematic study of Schopenhauer, but would yet like to come under his magic influence, will do well therefore to merely glance over the first volume, picking up the general drift of his system, and then pass on to the second, in which, if so disposed, they may gather the main points of Kant's philosophy in a "criticism" of 157 pages, very much more lucid than in Kant's original. Then there are chapters on concrete and abstract knowledge, on rhetoric, the ludicrous, on mathematics; an ingenious argument to prove "man's need of metaphysics"; a chapter on the will in self-consciousness, etc. But it is in the third English volume that the reader will find the most inviting themes and the most brilliant treatment. The chapter on "Death" is an eloquent and poetic argument for impersonal immortality; "The Vanity and Suffering of Life" and "Denial of the Will to Live" are spicy essays on pessimism, lurid as Dante's "Inferno"; the chapter on "Imperfections of the Intellect" is full of the most subtle and lucid psychologic analysis; genius has never been so truthfully depicted as in chap. xxxi.; and in the "Metaphysics of the Love of the Sexes," the theory of complementary qualities is discussed in a manner to interest all but lovers, who, as Schopenhauer admits, will be highly displeased with it. In this chapter, by the way, Schopenhauer formulates for the first time the modern theory of instinct, for which he has never received due credit. Other modern thoughts are anticipated in his chapters on teleology, heredity, etc. Of exceeding interest are his chapters on the æsthetics of natural beauty, architecture, painting, poetry, and even music, though this last chapter is a medley of blunders. Students of Lessing will find a novel and plausible solution of the famous question why Laocoon is not represented in the statue as crying out.

But it would be absurd to attempt even a partial enumeration of the interesting topics touched on by the great pessimist. That there was hardly one on which he did not touch is shown by Frauenstädt's "Schopenhauer Lexicon," in two volumes, which constitutes an almost complete cyclopædia, invested, however, with a charm of "*genial*" individuality that no work of reference can give. And again we must revert to the style, which, when the author is not encumbered with metaphysical lumber, assumes a picturesqueness and lucidity which, as in the water of some of our Western lakes, seem all the greater on account of the depth of thought. Sometimes the profusion and poetic beauty of the illustrations are so great that the reader is apt to lose the drift of the argument, and to plunge into a reverie over one of the illustrations—for no philosophic writer is so suggestive as Schopenhauer; and for young writers who have difficulty in collecting their thoughts, nothing is so tonic in its effects and so apt to set the wheels of thought in motion as the perusal of a few pages of Schopenhauer.

The backwardness of the literary art in Germany is emphasized and illustrated by the fact that it took his countrymen so long to recognize his merits. He attributed the slow growth of his fame to the systematic ignoring and suppression of his name by envious professors of philosophy In this there may have been some truth; but the chief trouble lay in the fact that Schopenhauer refused to write in the philosophical jargon of the day. German philosophers of his epoch scorned to use words that were not of the doubly-distilled essence of vague abstraction. To descend to details, to vulgar, concrete, tangible cases, was considered a grave breach of philosophical etiquette. In a word, concrete writing was tabooed, and bad writing became fashionable and obligatory. By this fashion the metaphysicians did a great deal to demoralize the general literature of Germany, and one of the chief merits of Schopenhauer lies in this, that he turned the tide, and taught the Germans that philosophy and obscurity are not synonymous terms.

The translators' work has been admirably done. If any one compared all the 1,537 pages of the three English with the 1,376 pages of the two German volumes, he might discover errors. We have not found any in the pages we have examined, and everywhere the translators seem to have been successful, not only in giving Schopenhauer's meaning, but in preserving some of his individuality. Sometimes there is a little less compactness, and a little less attention to prose rhythm and the rule (which Schopenhauer strictly observed) of placing an emphatic word in an emphatic or accented place. The difficulties often presented by the choice of a word for a philosophical term which has no exact equivalent in English, have also been successfully met. The choice of the word "Idea" for the title, instead of the clumsy "Representation," must meet with every one's approval. One of the most difficult words is *Anschauung*. Our etymological equivalent, "intuition," has a subjective significance which makes it unavailable in translating Schopenhauer, who uses it with an objective, or, rather, sensuous meaning, roughly indicated by the original significance—"looking at." The word "perception," too, which is used by the translators, jars on the ears of those who know their Schopenhauer in the original; for it also seems to emphasize slightly the intellectual side of the process. In the chapter on "Genius," the word perception seems especially inadequate; yet it would be difficult to suggest anything better.

One advantage which the English has over the German edition is an index of nineteen pages. The translators might have made another improvement by translating Schopenhauer's numerous Greek quotations into English. Schopenhauer thought it sufficient to translate these into Latin, and the way he did this shows his thorough knowledge of these languages, which, he emphatically declared, every educated person ought to possess. But there are many things of interest in Schopenhauer to those who have never learned or forgotten their Latin; and to these the frequent Greek and Latin quotations will be impediments.

It remains to mention the synopsis of Schopenhauer's essay on "The Fourfold Root of the Principle of Sufficient Reason," which the translators have appended to the third volume. Schopenhauer claimed that the perusal of that was necessary to a full understanding of his work, as was also some previous knowledge of Plato and Kant. Indeed, he went so far as to assert that no one could fully appreciate him before he had read the whole work over twice, inasmuch as all the parts were so interlaced that the last chapters threw as much necessary light on the first as the first on the last. This, and much more, might be true, to convince any one of his metaphysical vagaries; but a much less arduous regimen is required of those who merely wish to enjoy the in-

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exhaustible supplies of wit and wisdom stored up in these volumes.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

MR. CLEMENT BATES'S 'Law of Limited Partnership' (Little, Brown & Co.) is a valuable little treatise upon a highly interesting branch of American statutory law—one which has close relations to other parts of the law—to the law of trusts, of corporations, and, of course, to the law of general partnership. The author speaks of the notion of a limited partnership as originating in Italy, as developing extensively in France, and as being introduced into our system something over sixty years ago; "but the process of integrating it with the common law choked the exotic outgrowth in the germ, and produced a native system bearing no resemblance to the parent." "The American system, . . . adopted in all the organized subdivisions of the United States except . . . Arizona, Idaho, and New Mexico, is unknown to the rest of the world." The author has found, as regards this subject, what Mr. Stimson mentions in his work on 'American Statutory Law' as a general fact, that the legislation of our States falls mainly into groups; and it is possible, therefore, to present a fairly compact and generalized statement of the law of limited partnership as existing in all our States. It appears to be very well and carefully put together. Mr. Bates acknowledges the value of the large work of Troubat published a generation ago.

From the preface we learn that the writer has in hand a larger treatise on general partnership, and that the present work has grown incidentally out of that. His method seems to be one of great thoroughness, and justifies excellent hopes; but we trust that he will think many times before he adopts the form of book to which he alludes in speaking of "an ideal treatise, constructed, by the use of different sizes of type, so as to combine at once a small and general work of ultimate and fundamental principles in large type; a medium-sized work, by placing in smaller type under the general principles their corollaries, deductions, qualifications, and exceptions; and, lastly, an exhaustive statement of all decisions, with the minutest possible analysis." Mr. Bates is a law writer of too much promise to be allowed to commit himself to such a project as this, without a remonstrance. Let us beseech him to avoid it, as a delusion and a snare.

Mr. Edward P. Usher's 'Law Pertaining to the Sale of Personal Property, as Contained in the Statutes of Massachusetts, the Decisions of its Supreme Judicial Court, and the Statutes of the United States' (Little, Brown & Co.) is a very good book indeed, although not a little indebted to Benjamin's large treatise. It is a small octavo of near 400 pages, stating with great conciseness and yet great fulness of reference to the Massachusetts cases, the law of that State on the subject named in its title. There is at the end a full and very valuable "Bibliographic Note," which must have been prepared with much pains, giving references to American and foreign text-books and to monographs and magazine articles upon the subjects covered by this book. The fourth edition of Benjamin is not included in the list. The author wastes no words. There is a direct, brief, business-like method of stating his points, as of one who does not wish to waste anybody's time. It is perhaps in pursuance of a purpose simply to give to his readers what he finds in his books, that Mr. Usher abstains from any discussion of his authorities. This is to be regretted. So accurate and intelligent a writer might have helped matters a little now and then by doing something more than give us the not always well-considered expressions of judges, as *e. g.*, at ss. 113 and 117. At s. 128 it would have been well to cite the important but neglected provision of the Public Statutes, c. 3, s. 3, cl. 25, which runs back to the revision of 1836. S. 216 is not accurately stated.

The subject of copyright is dealt with in a manner careful, thorough, and interesting in Mr. R. R. Bowker's 'Copyright, its Law and its Literature' (New York: Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*). The quarto form of the book is perhaps to be regretted, and so is the insertion of several pages of the facsimile autographs of authors appended to a petition on the subject of international copyright. This last gives a cheap, catch-penny air to a book of solid merit. The nature and history of copyright, the common law and the statutory doctrines on the subject, both in England and here, the European local and international doctrine, and the isolated and regrettable case of the United States on the subject of international copyright, are all set forth in clear and brief chapters; and the existing statutes in this country and England are then given. An admirably full and careful bibliography of the subject is added, covering about sixty pages, nearly half the book. This is the work of Mr. Thorvald Solberg, Assistant in the Library of Congress. It contains not merely the books in all languages, but the articles in magazines and periodicals. There is, *e. g.*, a full index to the *Nation* upon the subject of copyright. The word "copy," it seems, is from the Latin *copia*. The judicial replies given on pp. 6 and 7 should not be styled "decisions"; they are merely advisory opinions.

'The Law of Field Sports' (O. Judd Co.), by George Putnam Smith of the New York Bar, is an excellent little manual which should not have been left without an index. The object of it is described as that of providing "the American sportsman with a succinct statement of the rules of law affecting him in the acquisition of his outfit and in the pursuit of game." After warning the sportsman in the first chapter how to steer his way amid the perils that beset him in acquiring his equipment, *e. g.*, in buying a dog that may have been stolen, five other chapters follow on "Dogs," "Trespass," "Property in Game," "Game Laws," and "Fish and Game Clubs." The last half of the book, some sixty pages, is devoted to a valuable appendix containing in a brief and clear form a summary of the game laws of forty-five States and Territories, and of the District of Columbia. The volume will prove interesting even to the unprofessional reader. The writer would perhaps have done well to emphasize a little more than he has sometimes done, the need of examining the local statutes, *e. g.*, in the chapter on dogs.

Mr. Martin Lehmayer, of the Baltimore bar, publishes a brochure (Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey) entitled 'Should Juries in Criminal Cases be Judges of the Law and Fact?' He is concerned mainly with the law in Maryland, where, since 1851, the Constitution has said: "In the trial of all criminal cases the jury shall be the judges of law as well as fact." In 1858, and again lately, the Court of Appeals held that this was merely declaratory of the preëxisting law. But Mr. Lehmayer seeks to show that this provision "is *not* declaratory of the common law, but is on the contrary directly derogatory to it, [*sic*] as juries in England never were the 'judges of the law in criminal cases,' and that it is furthermore unequivocally in conflict with the great weight and preponderance of authority in the United States." After examining and quoting through some eighty octavo pages the "common-law authorities," the "American authorities," including text-books, and the "Maryland decisions," the writer ends his labors by submitting that "the clause of the Maryland Constitution above considered is a standing reflection upon the judiciary of the State. It conveys the inference that our courts cannot be trusted; it is contrary to reason, opposed to authority, and should be expunged from the law of the land."

This little book is useful as having a considerable collection of cases, and we are disposed to agree with its main opinion. But it is far from being an adequate discussion of the well-worn theme which it treats. The dispute upon this question is in a considerable degree a matter of terms. Nobody disputes that a jury had at common law, and still has, generally, in criminal cases, by giving a general verdict of not guilty, a power to close the case beyond any control; the Government cannot have a new trial. This is called a power, and so by some a legal right, to decide law as well as fact. Others call it by a different name. If Mr. Lehmayer is not acquainted (and we judge that he is not) with the extremely learned consideration of this general subject by Mr. Horace Gray, jr. (now Mr. Justice Gray of the Supreme Court of the United States), in a note to the case of Erving *v* Cradock in Quincy's Reports, 553, he will be glad to be referred to it. Mr. Gray, who declares for the common-law right of the jury to pass upon the law, appears to have ranged over all the cases; and after a profusion of citations, he ends his long and very valuable statement with these striking words:

> "It is worthy of notice how the history of this question after the English Revolution of 1688 repeated itself in America nearly a century later. The great constitutional lawyers and judges of either Revolutionary period—Somers and Holt; Adams, Jay, Wilson, Iredell, Chase, Marshall, Hamilton, Parsons, and Kent—with one voice maintained the right of the jury upon the general issue to judge of the law as well as the fact. But they had hardly passed away, or fifty years elapsed since either Revolution, when the courts of the new Government began to assert as much control over the consciences of the jury as had been claimed by the most arbitrary judges of the monarch whom that revolution had overthrown. The analogy recalls the motto from Grotius, placed by Mr. Dallas upon the title-page of his reports: Atque eo magis necessaria est hæc opera, quod et nostro sæculo non desunt, et olim non desuerunt, qui hanc juris partem ita contemnerent, quasi nihil ejus præter inane nomen existeret."

Perhaps no entirely satisfactory statement upon this subject can be made until the full history of the English jury is written—a work demanding far more learning than has ever yet been applied to it.

'The Student's Kent: An Abridgment of Kent's Commentaries on American Law' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is prepared by Mr. E. F. Thompson, and has a brief introduction by Mr. Justice Nelson of the U. S. District Court for Massachusetts. We do not fully share the favorable opinion of the work which is given in this introduction. It undertakes to present the meat of 2,253 pages in 315, which are considerably smaller than the original ones. This, of course, is a formidable task. A careful comparison of the editor's treatment of the subject of Sale, in compassing the last eighty-nine pages of Kent's chapter xxxix within eight pages of this work, shows that the task has been done with skill; but it reveals also the fact that the "student" gains literally nothing of all that the last half-century has contributed to this important branch of law. What that means will be understood by any lawyer who reflects that Blackburn on Sale was printed in 1845. All the old ambiguities, and the antiquated interpretations of some points in the Statute of Frauds, are here repeated, and an intolerable air of quaintness is imparted to the pages by the citations (taken from Kent), of which not one is less than about fifty years old. If this work was worth doing at all, it should have been done better. No doubt there is advantage in having a

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readable summary of the law, good for the earliest use of a student and for the general reading of laymen. What Chancellor Kent would furnish to-day for such a purpose would be indeed most valuable; but a condensation of what he said half a century ago and more, with little or no adaptation to the modern law, is an ill-judged enterprise.

A second edition of the 'Treatise on the Trial of Title to Land,' published in 1882 by Arthur G. Sedgwick and Frederick S. Watt, has now appeared (Baker, Voorhis & Co.). This fact (and the work, we are told, has been out of print for a year) indicates that it has met a want of the legal profession. Although it is cast in a form that relates to procedure, it really incorporates a great mass of substantive law. The treatise is intended as a handbook for practice, and it is a very good one. While some parts of the extensive subject are dealt with in a manner which, from the point of view of a specialist, leaves much to be desired, it is also true that, as a whole, the work is prepared with an unusually skilful combination of learning with sound judgment as regards the needs of a practitioner. The first two chapters furnish an instructive history of the action of ejectment and real actions in the United States. "The system of real actions," say the authors, "is practically extinct in America, excepting in parts of New England. It may be stated generally that our modern remedies constitute a single general system of procedure, disguised under a variety of names." This circumstance has enabled the authors, while making wide citations, to give to the book a unity of character which is often denied to general treatises in this country. It is really a treatise on the *American* law of the subjects dealt with. The present edition has been enlarged by adding four new chapters and twenty-six hundred cases.

A third edition of Angell's well-known treatise on 'Highways' (Little, Brown & Co.) is published. It is edited, as the second edition was in 1868, by George F. Choate, one of the probate judges of Massachusetts. The larger part of this work was written, not by Angell, but by Thomas Durfee, now Chief Justice of Rhode Island, who took up the unfinished plans of his deceased friend, and completed them by the addition of many more pages than Angell left behind him. All this, indeed, appeared in the preface to the first edition, in 1857, but it seems a pity that some hint of Chief-Justice Durfee's highly important labors should not have been preserved in the accepted title of the book. There is no need to discuss, at this time of day, the characteristics of a treatise so well known as this. It is useful and trustworthy. In looking through the chapter on the "Laying Out of Highways by Legislative Authority," one finds himself doubting whether something be not lacking in the way of acknowledgment to others who had previously published careful work upon that subject.

A new edition of Stephen's 'Digest of the Law of Evidence' is published by Little, Brown & Co. from the fourth English edition, which was out five years ago. This edition, besides being thus slow in coming, is prepared in a manner quite unworthy of the house that publishes it. The new editorial work is too scant and too poor. The fairly good notes of the former editor are preserved. A far better edition, indeed a very good edition, of this work was published last year by Prof. Chase of the Columbia Law School. Both books have unfortunately omitted Stephen's important and very characteristic preface to his third edition. He himself omitted it in the fourth. It is too important to be left behind; it helps a careful reader to estimate justly this useful but dangerous and over-praised guide to the law of evidence.

In Dr. Erwin Grueber's 'Roman Law of Damage to Property' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) the learned author, who is Reader in Roman Law at Oxford, has presented "a commentary on the titles of the Digest *Ad Legem Aquiliam* (ix, 2), with an introduction to the study of the Corpus Juris Civilis." It is a pity that the author has neglected to give an index. The body of the work consists of two parts, (1) a "commentary" on the text of the Lex Aquilia, which gives, by sections, the Latin, a careful translation, and then a short explanatory and illustrative passage by the author. This fills a hundred and eighty pages, and must be highly useful to students of the Roman law. The last hundred pages of the book are taken up with the second part, "a systematic exposition of the Roman law of damage to property" and a convenient summary of the same. The author handles his topic with minute care. The student of English law will find this volume instructive. It will introduce him to the methods of treatment and illustration used in the Roman law, and thus not merely will satisfy his curiosity, but will broaden his conceptions.

English Merchants: Memoirs in illustration of the Progress of British Commerce, by H. R. Fox Bourne, author of 'The Life of John Locke,' 'The Romance of Trade,' etc. London.

THIS book is an excursion into one of those byways of history which, as a rule, are attended with results far more profitable and interesting than are to be found along the broad and beaten highway. When we speak of "byways of history" we speak after the manner of historians, for, assuredly, in the history of Great Britain there are few factors of greater interest and importance than the "growth of British commerce." It can be spoken of as a "byway" only because historians have chosen to give an arbitrary prominence to wars, dynastic revolutions, and parliamentary conflicts. Mr. Fox Bourne's narrative bears in every page the indications of long and laborious research, and the only complaint that we have to make against him is, that he has endeavored to compress the results of his wide and varied studies within too narrow a compass. It is at times difficult to see the wood from the closeness with which the trees are planted together. The best portions of his book are the general surveys of British commerce which he takes from time to time, and we incline to think that he has cut down these with an unsparing hand in order to obtain the more space for his biographical details. Especially interesting is his account of the growth and development of Liverpool, and we could wish that he had entered as fully into the growth of London, Bristol, Hull, and other of the great commercial centres of past times.

Curious is it to note how, at almost every stage of their history, Englishmen have striven desperately to obstruct and impede the growth of their commercial greatness by rules and prohibitions inspired by the most ingenious perversity. For example, this:

"In a regulation of the City of London, made some time before 1237, it was laid down that all foreign merchants, and especially merchants coming from Normandy and Picardy, if once they entered the Thames, 'might not and should not, according to the ancient customs and franchises of the city and the realm, come to, or anchor at, any other place than London only.' They were forbidden to have any dealings with foreigners or residents of other English towns, 'seeing that all their buying and selling out do take place within the city, and that only with the men of the city.' They were not, however, to stay in London more than forty days, and at the end of that time they were to go back to their own place, or, at any rate, to retire to some part as distant, and they were to see that within the forty days all their wares were sold or exchanged in open market—'as, when the term had expired and it was his duty to depart, the merchant might not hand over any portion of his stock to his host or to any other person.' Nor might he carry aught away with him. Whatever was found in his possession after the time appointed for its disposal was forfeited for ever."

From another passage we learn that the "Fair-Trade" craze was as rabid in England in the days of Charles II. as in those of Queen Victoria.

"The immense importation," writes a Fair Trader of that olden time, "into England of French wares of various kinds gave just umbrage to all wise people, as occasioning a vast annual loss in point of the general balance of England's trade; some say to at least one million sterling, others to considerably more, because while we were wantonly and without measure importing and using the produce and manufactures of France, the wiser French Ministry were from time to time laying heavier duties upon the English manufactures and produce. Hereby, the English foreign trade in general languished, rents fell, and all ranks began sensibly to feel its bad effects."

Under this impression, Mr. Bourne tells us, an act was passed in 1678 declaring the importation and sale of French goods in England to be "a common nuisance to this kingdom in general, and to all his Majesty's subjects thereof," and ordering that for the future French goods should not be admitted into any British port or dependency.

There are, in all, three chapters in this volume devoted to the subject of British commerce generally. The remainder, as the title indicates, consists of biographical notices of the most illustrious among the great merchant princes of Great Britain from the days of the Plantagenets until our own time. The series begins with the De La Poles of Hull—the leaders of British commerce in the days of King Edward III.—and closes with an account of the Gurneys of London. It is a various and remarkable company to which the reader is introduced, but he will not fail to be impressed by the sterling honesty, the zealous patriotism, and active spirit of benevolence which inspired by far the greater portion of these men. But for the self-sacrificing coöperation of the De La Poles of Hull, it would have been impossible for Edward to carry on his French wars, which, barbarous, bloody, and futile as they seem to us, were in his day accounted achievements of the highest utility and honor. After these we are introduced to the famous Richard Whittington of London, and then through a series of Cannynges, Thornes, and Greshams, until we arrive at those bold mariners of the Elizabethan age who combined the business of merchant with those of discoverer, pirate, and sea-captain in the service of the Virgin Queen. Their method of forcing a trade, when one could not be had spontaneously, was peculiar. Of Sir John Hawkins we are told how he "proposed to exchange his negroes for the hides and sugars of Rio de la Hacha":

"But seeing that they would, contrary to all reason, go about to withstand his traffic, he would not it should be said of him that, having the force he had, he was driven from his traffic perforce, but would rather put it in adventure, whether he or they should have the better, and therefore he called upon them to determine either to give him license to trade or else stand to their own defence."

The townsmen, after deliberation, answered that they would buy his negroes for half the sum he asked—

"Whereupon the captain, weighing their unconscionable requests, wrote to them a letter, saying that they dealt too rigorously with him to go about to cut his throat in the price of his commodities, which were so reasonably rated as they could not by a great deal have the like at any other people's hands; but seeing that they had sent him this to his supper he would in the morning bring them as good a breakfast."

This breakfast, Mr. Bourne adds, had the desired effect upon the Spaniards, and "they made their

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traffic quietly." It is not the least of Mr. Bourne's merits as an historian of past times that he has a keen relish for the incomparable force and quaintness of the English written by our ancestors, and allows them to speak freely in their own language.

As we draw to later times, the composite character of commerce gradually ceases. The British merchant divests himself of his buccaneering attributes, and becomes a citizen with no greater flavor of war about him than comes from being sworn in, once in a way, as a special constable in some momentary emergency. The fortunes amassed by several of Mr. Bourne's heroes would be accounted large even at the present day, but their benefactions, it must be acknowledged, were in not a few instances upon a scale in proportion to their wealth. Few rich men have lived whose wealth was devoted to such noble uses as that of Edward Colston, of Bristol. Mr. Bourne mentions the following as among his "casual charities":

"On one occasion he gave £1,000 towards the relief of the poor in Whitechapel; and in 1701 he sent another £1,000 to be spent in maintaining the poor children of the same parish, then as now one of the wretchedest parts of London. Twice every week, we are told, he had large quantities of meat and broth prepared for distribution among the paupers in his neighborhood. Every year he went through Whitechapel Prison and the Marshalsea, to empty his purse in liberating the most deserving debtors for small amounts; and at one time he spent a lump sum of £3,000 to relieve and liberate the poor debtors in Ludgate Prison. In 1709, again, a year of famine, he sent a noble present of £20,000 to be applied by the London Committee in helping the starving poor of the city."

Worthy to be ranked, in respect of public munificence, with Edward Colston, is William Brown of Liverpool, a merchant of our own century. After a life spent in good works, his last act was to present the people of Liverpool with a free library, built and furnished at a cost to himself of £40,000. The political services rendered to the country by others in Mr. Bourne's roll of great merchants were hardly less conspicuous than the charities of the more wealthy among them. Indeed, the general impression left by the book is that the influence of commerce and commercial men upon the political destinies of Great Britain has been greatly underrated or altogether unknown to historians hitherto. Mr. Bourne lets in considerable light upon this neglected subject in the volume before us; but the reader feels, all through, that want of space has obliged him to withhold much—perhaps more than he has imparted. His chapters, none the less, abound with curious and instructive information respecting Old World times, and we commend it to the attention of all students of history.

Massacres of the Mountains: a History of the Indian Wars of the Far West. By J. P. Dunn, Jr., M.S., LL B. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. Pp. 784.

THIS is hardly a systematic history, and at first glance would seem to have too many of the elements of sensational writing for popular use. A more critical examination of the book, however, shows that a good deal of conscientious labor has been bestowed upon it, and that it may fairly claim to be the "History of the Indian Wars of the Far West" which, as a secondary title, is affixed to it. The period covered is that which begins with the Mexican war and the acquisitions of territory which followed it. The chapters are not strictly chronological, but take up the more striking incidents connected with the conflicts with various tribes, making the division of the subject topical from the standpoint of the Indian organizations and the locality of the disturbances.

The writer concludes, as many have done before him, that nothing more inconsistent, more vacillating, or more dishonest can be found in human history than the record of our Governmental dealing with the aborigines of the great West. He finds the Indian Bureau generally in the wrong—doing the things it ought not to do, and leaving undone the things it ought to do. Yet he does not wholly approve the military policy which has been pursued by the War Department, though he would probably have favored the plan of making the army the general administrator of Indian affairs as well as the power to suppress outbreaks by force.

We take it, however, that the book was not written with much expectation of offering a "solution" of the problem. Its less ambitious purpose seems to be to give such graphic descriptions of the Indian wars of the West as will enable the reader to comprehend, and in some degree to realize, what were the horrors of those frontier struggles which have accompanied the gradual subjugation of the red men of the plains and mountains. The problem has solved itself, after a fashion. The buffalo are gone, the smaller game is fast going. The Indians themselves are surrounded by overwhelming numbers of white settlers; they are mainly supported by "Government rations," and the remaining question is whether they shall dwindle away as perennial beggars and vagabonds, or take on some part of civilization and its thrift as a condition of survival in their present environment.

The retrospect is not flattering to our wisdom or our humanity; but the history is one which cannot be greatly varied in any case of conflict between civilized and uncivilized man. Neither can understand the other. Neither can honestly judge the other. There is no common tribunal. Desperadoes of either race have always the opportunity to stir up war, and each will almost necessarily charge the responsibility upon the other. A popular government cannot resist the general current of popular feeling; and whether it be a Chief Joseph unwillingly dragged into a war which he foresees will be the destruction of his tribe, or a President seeing with shame a horde of miners and adventurers breaking in upon Indian reservations, we see in either case phases of the same struggle for existence in which the alien contestants cannot be just to each other, and in which the worst elements and worst passions give character to the conflict.

Mr. Dunn's book has the great merit of sincere effort to bring the actual situation and the prejudices and habits of both sides into view, so that even in the most bloody wars we may see something of human nature in both parties to the contest. We could wish that he had spared us some of the revolting particulars of barbarous practices by both red and white savages; for there are limits of decency which no writer ought to pass, and where the common law of literature in all ages has tolerated at most a suggestion of things which must not be too plainly spoken. The fearful facts are part of the history of the subjugation of a continent by invaders of a more progressive race than the aboriginal stock, but, in spite of the fascination of the tale of mingled heroism and suffering, the intelligent reader must close the book with a sense of shame that a great nation could find no other way to solve such a problem.

Among the numerous woodcuts in the book, the portraits of both Indians and American officers are authentic drawings from photographs, and many of the landscape views are spirited and accurate.

Economics for the People. By R. R. Bowker. Harper & Bros. 1886.

THE number of elementary treatises upon political economy has become of late years so considerable that we should have supposed that the supply must be fully equal to the demand. The author of this little book, however, says that it was written because there seemed to be a need for it, and, after a careful examination, we are inclined to commend his judgment. Of course, there is no room in such a book for original research or development of doctrine, but the style is throughout so lucid, the illustrations so abundant, and the treatment so thorough, that the beginner will find it a very satisfactory guide. We cannot agree with the cheerful statement of the writer that economics "is really a simple matter," but we may properly say that he has done a great deal to present it in simple language. His reading has evidently been very wide, and it is certainly surprising that such a diversity of topics can be so adequately treated within the compass of less than three hundred duodecimo pages.

In view of the comprehensiveness of the author's purpose, we think, indeed, that he has been rather unusually successful in avoiding serious inaccuracy. In one or two cases, however, readers unacquainted with political economy might be misled. Thus, at page 46 we read that Ricardo's law of rent is that the amount of rent does not affect price. This is rather a corollary than the law itself, and although it is recognized as true by the writer, he in several places speaks of rent as entering into the cost of production. At page 112 we read that our national-bank currency is protected usually by about 12 per cent. gold reserve, a statement that is in several ways misleading. To say (p. 123) that the doctrine of Malthusianism "holds that population, increasing in much greater proportion than food, will finally outrun food, so that most of the human race must starve to death unless population is checked," is to give an account of this doctrine that no Malthusian would accept. And to say (p. 251) that the 'Wealth of Nations' assigns to the state a wide function as to education, is enough to make Adam Smith turn in his grave. It is a much more serious matter to lay it down that the wages-fund doctrine is now exploded. The notion that wages are paid out of the product of the labor for which they are paid is utterly fallacious, and is probably the source of most of the mischievous doctrines of the Socialists. Wages must necessarily be paid out of previous and not out of anticipated accumulations of wealth. Otherwise it is impossible to escape the absurd conclusion that if a million dollars is paid in wages to the laborers that dig a mine that proves worthless, this amount of money is realized from a product that has no value. The consequences of the prevalent error upon this point are much more grave than is commonly supposed, and must be considered by all who interest themselves in "profit sharing" schemes.

The book is thoroughly optimistic in tone, and is well calculated to arouse the hopes of those who may be inclined to despair of the republic. We must confess, however, that the condition of affairs described in the following statement seems to us as unlikely of attainment as it is desirable: "The American people will probably come, within a generation, to the simplest form of taxation, levying a single tax on land, at its fixed place, not where the owner lives, by which, probably, the national as well as State and local taxes will be collected on one system by the same tax-gatherers, half-yearly or quarterly, and each taxpayer will know all he pays and how it is spent." That is a capital description of the ideal system of taxation, but if there is a shred of evidence showing the existence of the slightest tendency in this direction in any recent legislation, we have failed to discover it.

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Gesammelte kleinere Schriften, Reisegedanken und Zeitideen: Ein Lebensbuch. Von Wolfgang Kirchbach. Munich and Leipzig: Otto Heinrichs; New York: Westermann. 1886. Pp. 494.

THE miscellanies here gathered together into a volume have been given the name of a "Lebensbuch," not because they are intended to furnish any one with a substitute for the venerable volume which is often called the Book of Life, but simply because they are supposed to reflect at various stages the intellectual life of their author. The book consists of essays, reviews, addresses, sketches of Italian travel, and a large batch of reflections in the vein of Theophrastus Such. To this list must be added a satirical *jeu d'esprit* at the expense of Paul Heyse, who has often been charged by his critics with an inclination to pose as a modern Goethe. In this piece, which is certainly witty enough in the details, whatever one may think of the central *motif*, Heyse is made to appear before Apollo and the Muses on Parnassus, and to undergo a process of disinfection before he is admitted to the circle of the immortals. In the presence of all the classical magnates of German literature, he descants majestically upon the dramatic shortcomings of Goethe and Schiller, and, by way of showing how he has improved upon his predecessors, recites the plot of his own "Alkibiades." Wieland charges him with having stolen his (Wieland's) inventions. Lessing is called in by Goethe as judge in the case. Heyse proceeds to set forth the points of difference in dramatic theory between himself and the judge. Lessing thereupon pronounces the defendant guilty, and sentences him to recite the plots of all his dramas without blushing and without showing signs of weariness. After that he is to commit to memory the 'Hamburgische Dramaturgie.' Apollo then declares the disinfection complete, and Goethe requests the Muses to bestow a few caresses upon Dr. Heyse, saying graciously: "I shall not be jealous; it would take half a score of such new Goethes to supplant me in your affections."

Of the serious portions of the book (and seriousness is emphatically the author's normal frame of mind) we feel no call to speak at length. The subjects treated represent a wide range of study, and the treatment is usually thoughtful and suggestive, though it is occasionally marred by a certain quality for which there is perhaps no more suitable name than bumptiousness. Critics and criticism, poets and poetry, music, painting, the Homeric question, mind-reading, Hindu philosophy—these are only some of the matters upon which the essayist sets forth his opinions; opinions which pretty uniformly turn out to diverge sharply from those held by representative authorities upon the particular subject under consideration. Thus, by way of example: German criticism has all run to rhetorical phrase-making, and has utterly lost touch with the intellectual life of the nation. Nowhere else is the influence of the higher criticism upon the public taste so feeble as in Germany. Again: The 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' are indubitably the work of one man, and each poem is dominated by one controlling artistic purpose; a man who can't see this is a literary noodle, and the future is going to put him to shame. Other illustrations might be given of Herr Kirchbach's independent way of looking at things, but we forbear.

We cannot refrain, however, from calling special attention to one essay, a seriously meant performance, which we at any rate have found considerably more diverting than the humorous "Munich Parnassus," already spoken of. It is the short chapter upon the merits of the German as compared with the Roman printed character. Our author is an uncompromising partisan of the former. He defends the German print not only on practical and patriotic but also on high æsthetic and psychological grounds. It is not only that the German letters are the more beautiful, being the natural outgrowth of the mediæval Germanic effort to embellish the stiff and graceless legacy of the Romans, but these highly embellished letters are, if one would but admit it, clearer and easier to read. "All our reading," says Kirchbach, "is in great measure divination (*Erraten*). This divination is facilitated by the highly evolved form of the German letter, whereas the Roman letter impedes it. It is precisely the advantage of all those little hooks and crooks and angularities that they promote rapid divination in the same way that the runes were formerly divined." Equally precious, in the essayist's judgment, are the capitals at the beginning of every substantive:

"Frenchmen and Americans," says he, "make merry over our intricate sentences. Well, it is precisely in virtue of our initial capitals that we can indulge ourselves with these intellectual prodigies. We do not need to prattle in short sentences like children, but, like Demosthenes, the Greek, and like that people of intelligence generally, we can in our might put forth a whole Gothic cathedral of syntax at one powerful mental effort. These initial capitals are bound up with the best part of our intellectual life, since they permit us to anticipate the general import of long sentences. . . . After a fashion they symbolize the nouns, or thing-words, as things, and so come to the aid of our fancy. *Wir sind ein Phantasievolk, und wollen es bleiben mit unseren schönen, geistvoll erfundenen, deutschen Lettern.*"

One may perhaps look indulgently upon this philosophy of the initial capitals, but really it seems as if that of the "hooks and crooks" were a case for the favorite ancient prescription, a dose of hellebore.

Woman in Music. By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1886. Pp. 221.

SIX years ago Mr. Upton wrote a book on woman's influence in the musical world, but only a few copies got into circulation, as the plates were destroyed by fire. He has now enlarged and reprinted the work, which makes very pleasant summer reading. Though he admits that no woman "has written either an opera, oratorio, symphony, or instrumental work of large dimensions, that is in the modern repertory," he yet succeeds in showing that to woman's influence we owe many of the finest inspirations in musical literature. For great musicians have generally been great admirers of the fair sex, and, like the poets, have written their masterpieces under the influence of love. Mr. Upton adopts two methods to show woman's influence on composers: first, in a series of short biographies of Bach, Handel, Beethoven, Haydn, Mozart, Schubert, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Chopin, Weber, and Wagner, in which we learn that some of these shining lights were almost always in love or at least influenced by admiration and affection; secondly, by an appendix giving a list of works dedicated by these musicians to various women. Thus Beethoven—who was constantly a victim of the tender passion, was twice refused, and more than twice made up his mind to marry—has 36 pieces dedicated to more than 20 different women; Chopin, "whose very name suggests the name of woman," has 39 compositions dedicated to 36 different women; Schumann, who, in his early years flitted from one flower to another, has 35 dedications to almost as many women; etc.

As an interpreter of music, woman has done even more for its advancement than through her influence in rousing the energy of men. The list of great female singers is larger and more imposing than that of tenors and basses. But in instrumental music the relations are reversed, great female players being comparatively rare. And in composition, as already intimated, woman cuts a sorry figure. Mr. Upton gives a list of four female composers in the seventeenth century, 27 in the eighteenth, and 17 in the nineteenth; and of all these the only names generally known are Clara Schumann, Fanny Hensel, and Elise Polko, who, however, got her reputation by her stories rather than by her songs.

The first chapter of Mr. Upton's book is devoted to an analysis of the probable causes which have prevented any woman from being as great in original composition as a few have shown themselves in art and literature. Four reasons are suggested: (1) woman's essentially emotional nature prevents her from "projecting herself outwardly," whatever that may mean; (2) she loses her interest in music with age, while man's seems rather to grow; (3) woman cannot endure the discouragements of the composers—the great battles they have to fight against traditional and prevailing taste; (4) music is not only an art, but an exact science, requiring for its mastery long years of patient toil and continuous application. Concerning the third reason assigned, it is to be said that it does not account for woman's failure to produce works of second-rate merit in the fashion of the day. These are appreciated and pay; but even of these the list is absurdly small. The fourth reason—woman's inability or unwillingness to apply herself to music as a science with sufficient concentration—is the most approximate solution of the question. Musical composition, for orchestra especially, involves an amount of brain power, by reason of its excessive complication, which few who have not tried it can realize. But perhaps the chief reason of woman's failure lies in the fact that music is an impersonal art. Woman's interests are chiefly limited to personal or human relations; hence they excel, to a certain point, as novelists, whereas musical ideas, though they may serve to embody human emotions, are in themselves exceedingly impersonal. Women, though they may study harmony and counterpoint for years, seldom even learn to improvise interestingly.

The Fresh-Water Fishes of Europe: A History of their Genera, Species, Structure, Habits, and Distribution. By H. G. Seeley, F. R. S., etc. Cassell & Co. 1886.

MR. SEELEY has given in this book, we believe, for the first time, a systematic and classified description of the fresh-water fishes of Europe, including the migratory species, such as sturgeon, salmon, and trout, whose existence is divided between inland waters and those of the seas. Owing to the occasional presence of many fish not distinctively migratory in fresh water, which pass most of their time in salt, brackish and salt, and brackish water, and vice-versa, it is difficult to define clearly all the species belonging in the province of fresh-water fishes. While there are trout which pass their entire lives in fresh water, others visit it only for the purpose of spawning, and we think it reasonably certain that a good many salmon rarely, if ever, return from the sea to their native streams. Mr. Seeley mentions "the presence in the brackish waters of the Baltic Sea of perch, pike, roach, and other familiar fresh-water types, making it probable that after a fish has once become a denizen of fresh waters it may again return to a salt-water life." There are also certain of the flat fishes, like the flounder, the plaice, the sole, whitebait, and many others, which come into the shallow and sheltered places at the mouths of rivers to spawn; and as some of them make their way far up the waters, they occasionally become acclimatized, and in any case may be mentioned as fishes found in fresh waters during their wanderings. The sole, though essentially a marine fish, we are told on page 88,

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has been kept in confinement in fresh-water ponds in Guernsey, much to its increase in growth, and it frequents the River Arun in Sussex, where it breeds, and attains, as in the Guernsey ponds, a much greater weight than its salt-water brother.

After a few pages devoted to the principles of classification, which are simple and easily understood, we come to the "table of geographical distribution" and the classification itself, which gives the orders, families, genera, species, and principal varieties. Nothing could be better than this preliminary arrangement, which brings what follows easily within the scope of the unscientific reader. The Salmonidæ, as the most important family, is given the greatest space. The waters of Europe are much richer than those of this country in varieties of trout; Mr. Seeley mentioning twenty-nine principal varieties, while we have, so far as known, less than half as many. We make up, however, somewhat for the deficiency in the comparative number of species of trout by the excess in those of salmon, of which our Pacific Coast has five or six well-defined varieties, while only one—the Salmo salar of the Atlantic—is to be found in European waters. The habits of this interesting fish are given to the extent that they are known, though much still remains to be learned. Mr. Seeley is decidedly of opinion that it feeds in fresh water, and gives as instances of its remarkable growth in salt water the case of a grilse kelt of two pounds' weight, marked on going down to sea, which was captured four months later weighing eight pounds, and a marked salmon of ten pounds increasing to seventeen pounds in six months.

In the chapter on the Pike is narrated what Mr. Seeley says, "if true, is one of the most curious incidents of natural history," as occurring in some of the Swedish lakes, where large birds of prey are in the habit of swooping down on the pike basking at the surface of the water. In these cases, if the pike is more powerful than the bird, the latter, unable to extricate his talons, is borne to the bottom and drowned.

"Incredible as the story seems, Eckström, the Rev. M. Möller, and other writers state that the flesh of the pike heals with the talons of the bird in its back, while the bird becomes converted into a skeleton, which is carried about by the pike. One skeleton, which had long been exhibited by a pike in Lake Wetter, had acquired a greenish tinge, and was regarded by the fishermen as a harbinger of mistortune. Mr. Lloyd tells of another skeleton carried by a pike in Lake Fryksdal, which was known to the fishermen for some time as the Sjötroll, or water sprite, and they fled from it in fear. It is said to have appeared like the horns of an elk or reindeer moving rapidly over the water; but at last Lieut. Lekander put a shot in the pike which carried it, and solved the mystery by proving the water sprite to be the skeleton of a sea eagle."

The book has a general index, an index to specific names and one to common names, and contains many illustrations.

A Stork's Nest, or Pleasant Reading from the North. Collected by John Fulford Vicary. Frederick Warne & Co.

Once in a great while there is a waif of a book, blown to one from some unexpected quarter, which is as refreshing as a cool breeze in summer; it has naturalness and humor and a touch of quaintness, and is so good a "care-charmer" that one forgets all about realism and Paris and Russia, and reads just as if the vast sophistication of modern literature was a thing of naught. This collection of short Danish tales has afforded this happy experience to us. There is a foreign burr in the style, half-a-hundred or more lapses of English, but they need offend no one; if he wants the pure idiom, let him search for it in our popular novelists and bless his stars if he find it there. Here are a number of plain, downright stories, without any theory of life or art, told simply to please the old-fashioned taste in man for a narrative. They are so simple that one thinks they must be meant for children. No steppes, nor slums, nor spiritualists; only homely people in country places, common loves and hates, provincial customs, folk-lore superstitions, humors independent of time and place—surely this is not for grown folks, at least for such as have matured enough not to like Sir Walter Scott. It is all very charming, however, and the thought flitted through our mind that it was like Italian pastoral, with a difference—the difference there is between the Dutch masters and the Italian idealists in painting. But, not to push praise or fancy too far, it is a human book out of the Danish soil, and has fed on pure air; and so we leave it to those who are old-fashioned enough in their literary tastes to relish plain food.

The Pleasures of a Book-Worm. By J. Rogers Rees. George J. Coombes. 1886.

This little volume, which belongs typographically to the catalogue of *Delicia Literarum*, is not meant for all comers, but only for those initiated into the art and mystery of literary epicurism. There is a sort of confession in its looks which says: "Don't meddle with me unless you have my weaknesses." The "worm" is a different species from the old kind, the Disraeli breed, which devoured knowledge; it is not of the Dibdin variety either, which feeds on vellum, rare bindings, and unique engravings; it is very modest, very restricted in range, and one suspects that the choice of its diet is determined by its youth and inexperience, since it seems to have got its color principally from the library of the Charles Cowden Clarkes, man and wife. The books of the late Georgian time, Lamb especially, are its sanctuary, and it has made a pretty web out of some poets' dedications, and it has a few bits of quotations on out-of-the-way matters. It loves authors more than books—a quite improper human quality in it; the "worm" of the true stripe does not care a rap for mankind. "Fresh woods and pastures new" is the best wish—and advice—we can give it.

Heraldry, English and Foreign, with a Dictionary of Heraldic Terms. By Robert C. Jenkins, M.A. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1886. 16mo, pp. 111.

At first sight there would seem to be no especial need of another manual of heraldry. Within the past twenty years there has been a revival of interest in the subject, and works like Boutell's have given fresh instruction in an attractive form. The old manuals issued by the book trade have also been retouched, and, while no simple and concise treatise has appeared, the old ground is well covered. This work by Canon Jenkins does not fill the want, but it has a distinct value and interest to the student. He has devoted his labors to a branch of the subject hitherto neglected in English heraldry, but largely considered in Continental heraldry—that is to say, to those varied divisions of the field of which the gyron, the pile, the point, and the mound are examples. In English heraldry, the lines of the divisions are usually straight. The chief, the bend, the pale, the chevron, and the cross are the principal ordinaries. In German and French heraldry the lines are often curved, and much use is made of interlaced or combined ordinaries. So, also, the effective arrangement known as counterchanging is largely used. On these topics our author has much to say, and it may well be that he will thereby enlarge the scope of English heraldry. His book will interest the student, and deserves to be issued in a larger form. But, we must add, his woodcuts are a disgrace to his publisher. The designer evidently was making his first essay in heraldic engraving; and we are not sure but that he was trying his 'prentice hand with the graver on any subject for the first time.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anson, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part I. Parliament. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Brady, J. E. Die Lautveränderungen der neugriechischen Volkssprache. Göttingen.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Heine's Harzreise. Vol. VIII. of German Classics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Cervus, G. I. Cut: A Story of West Point. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippicott Co. 50 cents.
Conway, H. Somebody's Story: John W. Lovell Co. 10 cents.
Crawford, F. M. Dr. Claudius: A True Story. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Drumont, E. La France Juive. 2 vols. Boston: Schoenhof.
Fall, C. G. A Village Sketch, and Other Poems. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Fontaine, F. G. de. Condensed Long-Hand and Rapid Writer's Companion. American News Co. $1.25.
Forde, Gertrude. In the Old Palazzo: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. Greater Greece and Greater Britain, and George Washington the Expander of England. Two Lectures. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Fuller, E. Fellow-Travellers: A Story. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.50.
Grousset, René. Œuvres posthumes. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Gunsaulus, F. W. The Transfiguration of Christ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hayes, Helen. Aspirations. Thomas Whittaker.
Hinton, J. The Mystery of Pain. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
James, E. Human Psychology: An Introduction to Philosophy. Revised ed. Baker & Taylor. $1.50.
Jenkins, E. The Secret of Her Life. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Laing-Mason, M. Sir William's Speculations; or, the Seamy Side in Finance. Scribner & Welford.
Le Plongeon, A. Sacred Mysteries among the Mayas and the Quiches, 11,500 Years Ago. Their Relation to the Sacred Mysteries of Egypt, Greece, Chaldea, and India. Free Masonry in Times Anterior to the Temple of Solomon. Illustrated. Robert Macoy.
Macmillan, Rev. H. The Olive Leaf: Sermons. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Many Mistakes Mended: Two Thousand Five Hundred Corrections in Speaking, Pronouncing and Writing the English Language. *N. Tibballs & Co.* $1.
Miller, J. The Destruction of Gotham. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Modern Unitarianism: Essays and Sermons by Twelve Unitarian Ministers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Montague, C. H. The Romance of the Lilies. Boston: W. I. Harris & Co. 50 cents.
Moore, Helen. Shelley, Mary Wollstonecraft. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
O'Meara, K. Un Salon à Paris: Mme. Mohl et ses intimes. F. W. Christern.
Plato. The Trial and Death of Socrates. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Praed, Mrs. Campbell. The Head Station: A Novel of Australian Life. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Putnam, Eleanor. Old Salem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Radestock, Dr. P. Habit, and its Importance in Education. From the German. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Raymond, G. L. Modern Fishers of Men: A Tale of the Various Sexes, Sects, and Sets of Chartville Church and Community. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Reimensnyder, Dr. J. B. The Six Days of Creation: the Fall; and the Deluge. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Rhodes, Dr. M. Vital Questions Pertaining to Christian Belief. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.
Rosengarten, J. G. The German Soldier in the Wars of the United States. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Rossetti, Maria Francesca. A Shadow of Dante. Being an Essay Toward Studying Himself, His World, and His Pilgrimage. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Schopenhauer, A. The World as Will and Idea. Vols. II. and III. London: Trübner & Co.
Scudder, H. E. Stories and Romances. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Sergeant, Adeline. No Saint. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Sill, J. M. B. Practical Lessons in English. A. S. Barnes & Co. 70 cents.
Sketch of the Women's Art Museum Association of Cincinnati. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke.
Smith, G. P. The Law of Field Sports: A Summary of the Rules of Law Affecting American Sportsmen. O. Judd Co. $1.
Southern Bivouac. New Series. Vol. I. June, 1885, to May, 1886. Louisville: B. F. Avery & Sons.
Stevens, H. Recollections of Mr. James Lenox, of New York, and the Formation of his Library. London: Henry Stevens & Son.
Theuriet, André. Hélène. F. W. Christern.
Thompson, G. C. Public Opinion and Lord Beaconsfield. 1875-1880. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $9.
Thompson, Sir H. Diet in Relation to Age and Activity. Scribner & Welford.
Traill, H. D. Shaftesbury (the First Earl). D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Wentworth, Dr. J. B. The Logic of Introspection; or, Method in Mental Science. Phillips & Hunt. $2.
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. A Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Wilcox, Ella Wheeler. Perdita and Other Stories. J. S. Ogilvie & Co.
Wilson-Fowler. The Principles of Morals. (Introductory Chapters.) Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wilson, J. G. Lyrics of Life. Caxton Book Concern.
Winter, J. S. Army Society: Life in a Garrison Town. Illustrated. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Wolff, A. La Capitale de l'Art. Boston: Schoenhof.
Woods, Mrs. Kate Tannatt. That Dreadful Boy: An American Novel. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.
Words to Song of Hugh Allone, Sailor. Richmond: Whittet & Shepperson.

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